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MOWAT'S GRAPHIC HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

PART I

TO 1603

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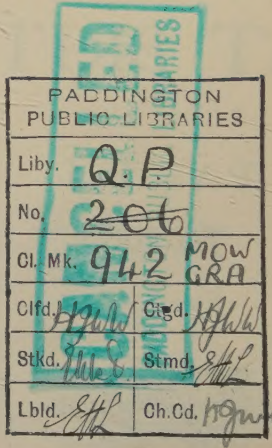

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PREFATORY NOTE

THE present volume is an abridged and simplified form of Mr. Mowat's well-known larger work: it is designed specially for pupils in Elementary and Preparatory Schools. The features and qualities of the original work have been preserved as far as possible, and a large proportion of the pictorial illustrations has been retained.

MOWAT'S GRAPHIC HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

PART I TO 1603

CHAPTER I

ANCIENT BRITAIN

The Ancient Britons. Long ago in the earliest known history of the British Isles, the people then living in our country belonged to the same race as those who inhabited the districts which we now know as France, Spain, and the Rhine Valley. There were two distinct types—one rather small and dark, the other tall and fair in appearance, and their descendants may be seen any day in almost any part of the British Empire. The dark men—the 'Iberians'—are the more ancient race, and probably came from the north of Spain. The fair men—the 'Celts'—probably came, after centuries of wandering, from Central Asia.

These ancient Britons lived mostly in villages or small towns. Their huts were made of wood, with roughly thatched roofs; and the whole village was surrounded by a palisade or prickly hedge, with perhaps a ditch, for defence. Sometimes, when a common danger threatened, a number of tribes would follow one leader, but as a rule each tribe lived separately under its own chief or chieftainess.

The lower parts of the country being covered with

forests or swamps, the people journeyed along the ridges of the hills, where short tender grass gave good pasture for the sheep. These natural roads may now be seen on the chalk Downs of the South of England.

As a rule the villages were built in clearings in the forests, or on islands, or where there was a firm river-bank, as at London. The people hunted, kept sheep, and grew a little wheat. Traders from Phoenicia came for tin and hides, which they sold to the Mediterranean countries.

The ancient Britons knew something of their own history. Their priests, the Druids, committed stories to memory and passed them on from generation to generation. Their religion had much that was savage about it, people were tortured and offered as sacrifices among the stones of Anglesey and Stonehenge. In other ways it was attractive—the mistletoe was looked upon as a sacred plant which only the Druids were permitted to cut, while the groves of the forest were believed to be the homes of both good and evil spirits.

We learn much of these doings of the people from the writings of Julius Caesar.

Invasion of the Romans. Julius Caesar invaded Britain in 55 and 54 B. C., because the people in the south helped their kindred in Gaul in their fighting against Rome. He sailed from Boulogne with 7,000 to 8,000 men just after midnight on August 26, 55 B. C. At 9 o'clock next morning the ships arrived under the cliffs of Dover, and the soldiers could see the Britons on the top of the cliffs ready to launch their darts at any stranger who landed on the beach below. Sailing along the coast Caesar landed on the flat shores between Walmer and Deal. Here the British with their war chariots held the shore in great strength, and the Romans

would never have landed had not the standard-bearer of the Tenth Legion thrown himself into the water, crying: 'Leap down, soldiers, unless you would betray the eagle to the enemy. I at least will do my duty to the Republic and to my general.' The Roman soldiers at once followed and the Britons were driven back. Caesar remained in Britain about three weeks, continually attacked by the natives and in constant danger. After some ships which were bringing him help had been wrecked in a storm, he was glad to get safely back to Gaul.

In the spring of 54 B.C. he returned with 15,000 to 20,000 men. These he landed at the same place as before. Somewhere in Kent he fought and won a hard battle with the Britons who lived north of the Thames.

Caesar soon withdrew his army to Gaul, after imposing tribute on the Britons. He never returned to Britain, for soon after becoming lord of the whole civilized world he was assassinated.

His invasions had very little effect on the history of our country.

It was not till A.D. 43 that a Roman general named Aulus Plautius made a real attempt to conquer Britain. The chief British ruler at this time was Caractacus. He made a brave fight against the Emperor Claudius, who had joined the Roman general, but without success. The greater part of the country was subdued, and Southern Britain became a Roman province.

Britain as a Roman province. Rome at this time had a great colonial empire, of which Britain became a province. The effects of this may be seen to this day. Roads were made, bridges built, towns planted, schools established, and Christianity was taught. The many

towns which still have 'chester' in their name—Manchester, Colchester, and so forth—recall the Roman occupation. Only that part of Great Britain which reached to the Forth and Clyde felt the good influence

of the Romans. The rest of Scotland, and also Ireland, did not come under their rule.

Every governor of Great Britain was a noted general. Under him were commanders, who dealt out justice in their districts. The Britons were ruled, under the Roman authority, by their own chiefs. A few Romans settled

in the country: some of these married British women and their children became Romano-Britons. In time, the name Romano-Briton was applied to all the British tribes which came under Roman civilization.

Three legions of Roman soldiers, about 10,000 men, were kept in Britain. When not fighting, they lived

ROMAN TESSELLATED PAVEMENT AT SILCHESTER.

with their families in cottages on the pieces of land given to them. The officers and chief people lived in villas—large houses made of brick, with beautiful tiled floors, bath-room, and furnace for heating all the rooms.

Boadicea. Under the Roman Governor, Suetonius Paulinus, the people were much oppressed. Boadicea, the 'Queen' or Chieftainess of the Iceni, who had herself been beaten with Roman rods, was able to rouse her countrymen against the oppressor.

The revolt of the Iceni occurred when Suetonius was in North Wales, where he had defeated the British and broken up the centre of the Druid worship in Anglesey. The Britons in the east rose, cut to pieces the Ninth Legion near Colchester, and sacked this town, and London also. Meanwhile, Suetonius had come racing back along Watling Street, and in a great battle near Colchester the Britons were finally overthrown. Boadicea put an end to her life by poison. In the years A. D. 83 and 84 Agricola, a great Roman Governor, overthrew the Caledonian chief Galgacus at the battle of Mons Graupius in Forfarshire.

Roman Roads and Walls. While the country was at peace, the Roman soldiers were employed for the greater part of their time in making excellent roads. Many of these roads followed the same lines as our great highways of to-day, e. g. London to York, to Chester, to Bath. Traces of these can still be seen, over the hills and along the ridges where they were made, either to command a view on each side against enemies or to avoid water-courses.

The walls which the Romans built in the north were a great protection against the Picts, a people small in stature but very active, who inhabited the greater part of Scotland. In A. D. 80 Agricola built a wall from the Forth to the Clyde. Forty years later Hadrian caused a wall to be built from the Tyne to the Solway Firth. This wall, which was named after him, was really a great earthen rampart, with stone towers or guard-houses at intervals. Companies of soldiers held these towers and kept watch from end to end. Large parts of these walls still remain.

The Romans withdraw from Britain. Before the

Romans finally left Britain in 410 Druidism had died out, and Roman temples took the place of Druids' circles of stones. By the year 304, when St. Alban became a martyr at the place now known as St. Albans,

REMAINS OF THE GREAT ROMAN WALL.

Christianity had spread to Britain, and from that time the Christian faith never died out in our land.

In the third century there were many serious quarrels in Rome over the succession of emperors, and it became difficult to safeguard provinces so far away as Roman Britain. The Picts, knowing this, attacked Hadrian's Wall from time to time, while the sea pirates, the Saxons from Germany, came over the North Sea and attacked the coasts.

The last Roman soldiers left Britain in A.D. 410, and the people were left to the ravages of the Saxon rovers.

Under the Romans the blessings of peace and order reigned where before there had been constant quarrels between the many separate peoples. Human sacrifices, tortures, and the burning of widows on their husbands' graves had ceased. Roads were made, forests were cleared, and marshland drained. Education was introduced, and the people were taught how to improve the breed of cattle.

After the Romans left Britain wars between the different tribes broke out again; foreign enemies came over and spoiled the country near the coasts. Thus the good results of the Roman teaching were gradually lost; forest and marsh again covered the land, and the people were left to the horrors of war and famine.

CHAPTER II

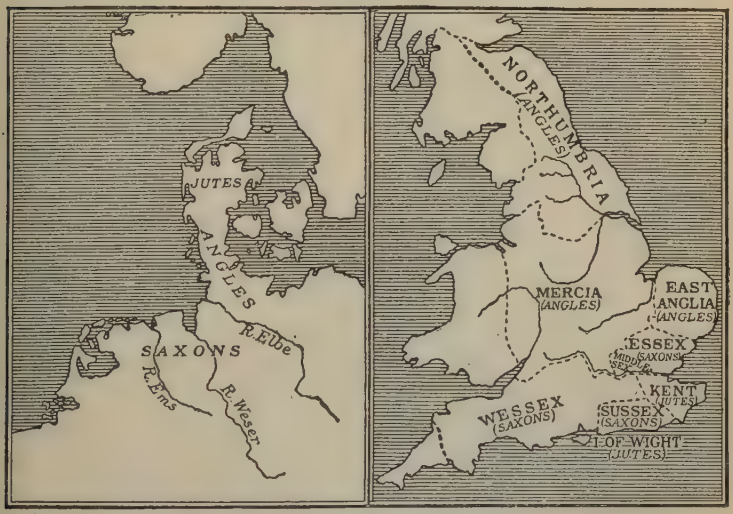
THE ANGLO-SAXON CONQUEST

Results of the Roman and Saxon Conquests of Britain. The Romans did not come to Britain with the desire to take the land from the people, but because, being a civilized nation, they found it necessary to impose order upon their uncivilized neighbours. They did not interfere with the property of the Britons, nor with their methods of governing themselves, but on the other hand they taught them useful trades.

The Saxon conquest of Britain was the result of a desire for new land, for plunder and adventure. The conquered Britons therefore lost many of the orderly ways they had followed under the Romans. While the

Romans brought peace and order, the Saxons brought strife and confusion. It was only after centuries of trouble that a new nation was produced showing great qualities of its own.

The Saxon Invasion. In A. D. 449 a British king named Vortigern asked the help of two Saxon chiefs,



MIGRATIONS OF ANGLES, SAXONS, AND JUTES.

'Hengist and Horsa', and their followers, in his struggles against the Picts. These new-comers occupied the Isle of Thanet, and soon turned their arms against the Britons themselves, and invited other war bands—Saxons, Angles, and Jutes—from Germany to join them. These came as conquerors, bringing their women and children with them to settle on the land. They sailed across the North Sea in boats not so large as our fishing-smacks, and landed in bays and estuaries of rivers on the east and south coasts.

The Jutes landed in Kent and the Isle of Wight, the Saxons in Essex, Sussex, Hampshire, and Dorset. The Angles landed on the east coast from Suffolk to Northumberland. After about a hundred years three kingdoms were formed: Wessex, south of the Thames; Northumbria, from the Humber to the Forth; and, between these two, Mercia, which reached from the North Sea to the Welsh mountains. Wessex was Saxon; Mercia and Northumbria were Angle.

The Britons did not allow these invaders to settle down without opposition. In a great battle at Mount Badon in Dorset in A. D. 520 they defeated the Saxons. By the end of the sixth century, however, the Angles and Saxons had won everywhere, and Christianity had almost disappeared from England.

The Angles and Saxons. The Angles and Saxons were rough, strong men from the forests and river valleys of North Germany. They took readily to the sea, and battled with the waves and the winds as bravely as they battled with the British tribes that stood in their way. They were faithful to their leaders, true to their word, fond of the country, fond of their wives and children, looking upon treason and impurity as the greatest of crimes. They worshipped gods who represented to them the forces of thunder or lightning, of wind, rain, sunshine, heat and cold, dearth and plenty. The days of our week are named after these gods.

The Britons, though offering resistance, were gradually driven from their forests and marshes, and were pushed back till at last they reached the shelter of the mountains of Wales. The Romano-British survive to-day in Wales and in Cornwall; in Wales their ancient tongue is still spoken. Most of the British who did not flee to Wales became slaves or servants of their conquerors.

CHAPTER III

THE CONVERSION OF BRITAIN

Disappearance of Christianity from Britain. With the Saxon conquest Christianity disappeared from Britain, except among the hills and valleys of the West, where it continued among the 'Welsh'—the foreigners—as the Saxons now called the Britons.

The churches that had been set up under the Roman rule were plundered by the Saxons, who gradually established themselves and their religion in England.

St. Augustine's Mission. In 597 a priest named Augustine from Rome landed in the Isle of Thanet as leader of a mission of Benedictine monks. He had been chosen by Gregory, Bishop of Rome, who some years before had seen some fair English slave-boys exposed for sale in the market at Rome. Bede, the ancient historian, relates

'That some merchants, having arrived at Rome on a certain day, exposed for sale in the market-place some boys, their bodies white, their countenances beautiful, and their hair very fine. Gregory having viewed them, asked from what country or nation they were brought, and was told, from the island of Britain. He inquired whether those islanders were Christians, and was informed that they were pagans. He again asked what was the name of that nation? and was answered that they were called Angles. "Right," said he, "for they have an Angelic face, and it becomes such to be co-heirs with the Angels in heaven." He asked "What is the name of the province from which they are brought?" It was replied, that the natives of that province were called Deiri. "Truly are they *De ira*," said he, "withdrawn from wrath, and called to the mercy of Christ. How is the King of that province called?" They told him his

name was Ælla; and he, alluding to the name, said, "Allelujah, the praise of God, the Creator must be sung in those parts." ' (Bede, *Ecclesiastical History*, Book II, chap. i.)

Ethelbert, King of Kent, who had married a Christian lady from France, received Augustine and his mission

ST. MARTIN'S, CANTERBURY, from an old woodcut.

on the chalk-down of Minster. In a few years all Kent was converted, and within fifty years Wessex had received Christianity too.

The British Christian Church. The coming of St. Augustine is one of the great events in the history of Christian England; for it brought in the Roman system of Church government and ritual, which was ultimately adopted all over the islands. In Wales and in Ireland,

which St. Patrick, a noble-born British youth, had converted in A. D. 405, the Celtic (or British Christian) Church was established. From Ireland St. Columba went to the little island of Iona off the west coast of Scotland, and from Iona St. Aidan carried the Gospel to Northumberland. Thus Wessex and Kent followed the Roman rule set up by Augustine, while Northumbria and Mercia followed the Celtic set up by Columba. At length, however, in 664, at the Synod of Whitby, the two Churches decided to follow the Roman rule and customs, and four years later the Pope sent Theodore, a Greek monk, to be Archbishop of Canterbury.

Early Literature in Britain. As Christianity spread, so education and learning revived. The Celtic Church especially, with its many monasteries, where the monks had peace and quiet to pursue their studies, contained many scholars. The first great poem which, in some sense, belongs to English literature is *Beowulf*, composed by some Scandinavian bard in the seventh or eighth century. The story is of the heroic deeds of the great Norse chief Beowulf, whose career had long been known and sung by the Angle peoples, even before they came to Britain. It is an epic of war, of the slaying of dragons and of men. It gives the following description of life in the house of a Saxon chief:

'Countless nobles guarded the Hall, as they had often done in earlier time: they cleared away the bench boards; it was strewn throughout with beds and bolsters. One of the revellers, whose end was near, lay down to rest in hall a doomed man. At their heads they set the shields, the bright bucklers; there, on the bench was over each etheling, plain to be seen, the towering war-helmet, the ringed mail-coat, the shaft of awful power. Their custom was that they were constantly

ready for war, whether at home or in the field, in both cases alike, whatever the occasion on which their liege lord had need of their services ; it was a good people.'

Cædmon. The chief writer of the seventh century was Cædmon, a monk in the monastery of Whitby, who wrote in the Angle tongue. Before he entered the monastery Cædmon attended a feast one day. It was the custom at these feasts for the guests to play upon the harp and in turn to sing verses of their own composing.

'When Cædmon saw the instrument come towards him, he rose up from the table and went out to the stable, where he had to take care of the horses that night, and there prepared himself to rest at the proper time. While he slept a person appeared to him, and saluting him by his name, said, "Cædmon, sing some song to me." He answered, "I cannot sing ; for that was the reason why I left the feast." The other replied, "However, you shall sing." "What shall I sing ?" rejoined he. "Sing the beginning of created beings," said the other. Then he began to sing verses to the praise of God. Awaking from his sleep he remembered all that he had sung in his dream, and afterwards wrote in Old English the story of the Creation, the history of Israel, and the story of Our Lord.' [*Bede's Ecclesiastical History.*]

Cynewulf. Another Northumbrian named Cynewulf wrote a beautiful poem on the story of Christ. In this he wrote :

Ours was a sorry plight,
until at last we sailed unto the land,
over the troubled main. Help came to us,
that brought us to the haven of salvation,
God's Spirit-Son, and granted grace to us,
that we might know, e'en from the vessel's deck,
where we must bind with anchorage secure
our ocean-steeds, old stallions of the waves.

Bede. Northumbria was the home of still another great writer—Bede, who was born about the year 673. He became a monk of Jarrow in Durham, where his life was passed till his death in 735. Bede's greatest pleasure was learning, teaching, and writing. He became the teacher of six hundred monks, and men from other places came to hear him. He wrote about astronomy, history, medicine, music, and grammar. His book which has the most interest for us is his church history of the English people, which was written in Latin.

CHAPTER IV

ENGLAND BECOMES ONE KINGDOM

The changing powers in England. For five hundred years after the invasions of the Angles and Saxons began, England remained divided, and what records there are, are chiefly about fighting.

After the short-lived supremacy of Kent under Æthelbert (A. D. 560–616), three kingdoms, one after the other, became supreme over the greater part of England. The first was Northumbria, next came Mercia, and lastly Wessex.

The supremacy of Northumbria. Northumbria had been formed out of the two northern kingdoms of Bernicia and Deira. Under King Æthelfrith it became strong, heavily defeating the Picts and the Welsh.

The next king of Northumbria, Eadwine, made the kingdom greater than ever: he was acknowledged to be 'Bretwalda', or overlord, of England. The fortress of Edinburgh, on the commanding rock overlooking the Firth of Forth, was founded by him. Eadwine became

a Christian. In 633 he was slain in Yorkshire while fighting against Penda, the heathen king of Mercia. Oswald, the next king of Northumbria, was defeated by Penda, who in his turn was overthrown by Oswald's brother Oswy.

Mercia after Penda's death became a Christian kingdom, and its ruler, Offa, was one of the greatest men of the time, and made Mercia the most powerful of the three kingdoms. Gradually, however, this power passed away.

Wessex. At the end of the eighth century a young prince of Wessex, Egbert, driven from his native country in one of the many civil wars, was living at the court of

Charlemagne. In 802 he was brought back to Wessex and accepted as king. From this time Wessex began to take its place as the chief state in England.

The Danish invasions. The Danes appeared in their low black ships off England before the end of the eighth century. They were strong and cruel men, eager to gain freedom from the strict rule of their own kings, and fond of adventure. At first they came in small bands; gradually these increased. They burned the English villages, made the men and women captives, while the children were killed or left to starve. The churches were destroyed, and the priests slain at the altar. In 870 the King of East Anglia was taken and shot to death against a tree. Some years after, the stately abbey of St. Edmundsbury was built over his remains. The result of the Danish invasions was that the country was in misery and lawlessness. A saviour arose in the person of King Alfred.

Alfred. Alfred was born in 849 at Wantage, in Berkshire, among the low rolling hills, smooth and grass-covered, known as the Downs. At the age of four he was sent to Rome by his father Ethelwulf. In 856 he was brought back to England, and in 871 became King of Wessex. His people were poor, mostly sheep-breeders and wheat-growers. Alfred, in spite of poor health, never faltered in his stern task. He became the soldier, the leader, the judge and teacher of his people: he is the most noble example of hardworking devotion and self-sacrifice in the whole story of England.

When Alfred, still a young man of twenty-two, succeeded his brother Ethelred I, the Danes were gradually becoming masters of the country. They were great warriors: they spent their whole life in fighting;

plunder was their reward, and they fought for it furiously. Against such enemies Alfred could only oppose men unskilled in arms, and unable to stay long in the battle-field, for they had to go back to their women and children, and their land had to be tilled.

The attacks of the Danes grew more powerful, and Alfred was obliged to retire to the marshes of Somerset in the winter of 878. In the following spring, with his forces strengthened, he fell upon the Danes at Ethandun in Wiltshire, and defeated them so badly that they were glad to make peace. Later, war was renewed, and Alfred gained another success in the capture of London.

THE ALFRED JEWEL.

The Danish king became a Christian; this itself was a victory for the cause for which Alfred had been fighting.

The English under Alfred. The English were Christians; war and plunder were not their aims in life. To live with his wife and family upon the good land which his father held before him was all the Saxon 'churl' wished for. The King was a high-minded man, who looked beyond the things of this world; a man of learning, religious, desiring to lead his people along the right path. As a brave soldier and leader, Alfred is among the greatest of a brave race of kings. He had genius too; he was able to look ahead; he saw things hidden from other men. He began the English navy, and persisted in spite of failure and discouragement,

because he saw that an island kingdom must be defended on the sea.

Alfred's industry ; his written works ; his schools. With peace Alfred became England's schoolmaster. He had to write the very books by which his people were to be taught. In addition to the work of government, to the daily task of hearing complaints, settling disputes, judging in trials ; and in addition to supervising the still needful task of defence, he found time. He translated a *History of the World* and the *Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation* of Bede. His interest in history, indeed, was of the liveliest kind, and he conceived the plan of having a national record of the public life of the nation. This was begun, it is believed, with his own hand, and kept up to date, year by year, by the members of certain monasteries, notably the monks of Winchester and Peterborough, down till the reign of Stephen. Thus the noble *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* is due to Alfred. He translated, too, some of the Book of Psalms, and other religious works. He built schools for boys, and set the monks to teach them.

The country won back from the Danes. When Alfred died in 901 more than half of England was still under the Danes. It was left to his son Edward ' the Elder ', and then to Athelstan, to reconquer the country. Edward's sister, Ethelfleda, had married the King of the Mercians, who ruled under Alfred. The Lady of the Mercians proved a vigorous leader like her brother. By the year 918, when Ethelfleda died at Tamworth, the greater part of Danish Mercia had been regained. As each district was reconquered, a fortress or ' burgh ' was founded, like Tamworth, Warwick, Stafford ; and the families that were given land in each burgh were

bound to defend it. Edward himself completed the reconquest of East Anglia, and after his death in 925, his son, the golden-haired Athelstan, won Northumbria. In 937 the Danes (or 'Norse') who had settled on the east coast of Ireland joined with the Welsh to overthrow the West Saxon power in the north. Athelstan met them in battle at Brunanburh in Cumberland and scattered them. For years afterwards minstrels sang the song of this victory in the halls of Saxon nobles.

Edgar the Peaceful reigned from 959 to 975. All England, even the Welsh, obeyed him as king.

The whole land was put under just laws, and Dane, Saxon, and Angle were living under the same king, enjoying the same peace. The King's chief councillor was Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury, and afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury. New schools were built, and, through singing especially, the children were taught religion and history. The land was at rest, and the old saying that a man could fare across England with his bosom full of gold and meet no harm, seemed at last to have come true.

CHAPTER V

THE LAST CENTURY OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS

Ethelred the Redeless. The century preceding the Norman Conquest was a troubled time. The Danes outside England had never forgotten that once they held the greater part of England, a land said to be full of riches, ready for the plunderer. Sweyn, King of Denmark and Norway, was a powerful monarch, and it would have taken a stronger king than Ethelred the Redeless to drive him off. It needed a noble, unselfish, untiring

leader. Instead, there was the weak Ethelred, thinking that cruelty was strength, and that cunning was judgement. After one unsuccessful battle with the Danes at Maldon in Essex he took to buying them off; making the people pay a tax known as Danegeld, which the Witan, the King's Council of wise men, had advised him to pay.

This buying off of the Danes was not a success; they took the money, but soon returned for more. Many of the Danes who had settled in England seem to have helped the new Danish invaders. Ethelred tried to massacre all those Danes on St. Brice's Day (November 13), 1002. Sweyn came back to England for vengeance, forced the 'Unready' Ethelred to fly, and made himself king. In the year 1014 Sweyn died, and his son Cnut reigned in his stead over England, Norway, Denmark, and Sweden. But Ethelred, who had found refuge in Normandy, returned to his country and drove Cnut out of Wessex. Ethelred died in 1016. His son, the heroic King Edmund 'Ironside', fought three hard battles and drove off the Danes from London. Later, in Essex, Cnut overthrew Edmund's army, but the men of Wessex once more gathered round their king, and Cnut, knowing how brave Edmund was, agreed to a treaty which stated that Edmund was to rule over Wessex and Cnut over the rest of the country. A month later Edmund was assassinated by an unknown hand, and Cnut reigned over all England.

Cnut as King. Cnut became a good and just ruler, and looked after the interests of England. He made good laws and saw that the courts of justice were open to every man. Trade and learning improved by reason of frequent visits from the people of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.

In 1027 the King visited Rome, where he was received with honour, and presented with very costly gifts of gold and silver vessels and garments.

Cnut died in 1035, after reigning eighteen years.

The house of Alfred restored to the throne. In 1042 the Witan recalled the house of Alfred, in the person of Edward the Confessor, a young man who had lived all his life at the Norman Court, and had become almost a Frenchman.

The reign of Edward prepared the way for the Norman Conquest. Edward was simple and guileless, but without strong character. He found the Saxons rough in their manners compared with the Norman-French. His great interest was to reform the Church in England.

Whenever he could he replaced a Saxon abbot or bishop by a Norman priest. As the people became more religious, so the building of churches was improved. Edward began the building of the glorious Abbey of Westminster; Norman monks and builders helped him.

Having no son of his own he invited William Duke of Normandy over to England on a visit in 1051. He is supposed to have promised him the crown on this occasion.

Earl Godwin disliked the Normans having so much power. He had risen by talent and force of character till, under Cnut and Edward, he was the chief man in the kingdom. He became Earl of Wessex. His sons, honest Harold, pleasure-loving Sweyn, courageous Gurth, and warlike Tostig, all became earls likewise, governing districts of England.

Godwin forced Edward to let go the Norman priests; they fled overseas. Soon after this Godwin died (1053).

On the death of Edward in 1066 the Witan chose Harold, Godwin's son, king in his stead.

Harold king. Harold stood for Saxon England, a country still of unclaimed forest and marsh, with numerous freemen living on their own land, with wooden churches, few towns, no frowning stone castles. William the Norman stood for feudalism, less liberty, more order,

SAXON SHIPS, from the Bayeux Tapestry.

a stricter Church, a wider learning, an iron hand over all. William's system triumphed. At Bayeux in Normandy can still be seen the wonderful tapestry, possibly made by Queen Matilda and her maids, whereon is pictured the story of the Norman Conquest.

The Campaign of Hastings. William, Duke of Normandy, was thirty-nine years old at this time, and was a man of firm mind, and very skilful in war. He had for years been waiting for the chance to become King of

England. On September 27 he sailed from Normandy and landed next day at Pevensey on the coast of Sussex, about eight miles east of Beachy Head, with probably 10,000–15,000 men.

King Harold had been ready to meet the invasion all the summer, but in this very month of September he had to meet another invasion in the north. One of his brothers, Tostig, Earl of Northumbria, exiled for misdeeds in that county, had brought the King of Norway against England. They landed in the Humber, defeated the Earls Edwin and Morcar, and took the city of York. Harold at once went to meet them, and at Stamford Bridge he utterly defeated the Norwegians. Both Tostig and the King of Norway were slain.

The battle of Stamford Bridge was fought on September 25, three days before William landed at Pevensey. When Harold heard of this, he came swiftly south with those of his army who could follow, and, receiving fresh forces at London, he advanced into Sussex. Harold planted himself on a hill seven miles inland from Hastings, commanding the road which goes to London. On October 14, William, who had his camp in Hastings, marched out to attack him.

The Saxons had a good position on the hill, but they were poorly armed, many having no armour at all, and only scythes, flails, and knives for weapons. Harold's housecarls, however, a magnificent body of some 2,000–3,000 men, had helmets and breastplates, and heavy Danish axes, which they wielded with terrible effect.

William's army advanced in three divisions—a central corps and two wings. First came the archers who, after shooting their arrows, gave way to the infantry; after these came the heavy cavalry, the mounted men-at-

arms. As they came onward, the Norman minstrel Taillefer, riding in front, kept throwing his sword into the air and catching it, singing a famous old lay, the *Song of Roland*, as he advanced. The attack failed, however ; the Breton soldiers gave way and were chased down the slope. This caused William to think of the plan by which he won the day. When he led his men to

SAXON FOOTMEN AND NORMAN CAVALRY
from the Bayeux Tapestry.

the attack again, he told his steadiest infantry to pretend to be beaten ; they retired down the hill, pursued by the English ; then the Norman men-at-arms rode through the broken ranks of the English and slaughtered them.

Yet Harold's housecarls still held the hill, and from noon till sunset they fought around their leaders, Harold, Gurth, and Leofwine. The arrows were pitilessly rained from the Norman host, till at last, fatigued, famished, and wounded, the housecarls began to break from their ranks. A few charges of the Norman cavalry settled the

fortune of the day. Harold, Gurth, and Leofwine all died on the field of battle.

After the battle William pushed forward to Dover, which surrendered at once. There he rested a week, as his army was suffering from sickness. Then he set forth to gain London, the heart of the kingdom. The gates of the city were opened. The English Witan had to elect him as king, and on Christmas Day, 1066, he was crowned in Edward's Abbey of Westminster.

Thus it was that William the Norman won his crown, and the old Saxon rule came to an end.

CHAPTER VI

THE NORMAN KINGS

The four Conquests of England. The Norman Conquest was the fourth and last conquest of England. The Romans, Saxons, and Danes, each in their turn, did something to develop the country to which they came, and in the long run England benefited by the different races which settled in the country and whose various qualities have helped to make the English character.

The Normans who settled in the country numbered about five thousand in all; they were nobles who came to govern. They received land from King William as a reward for their services at the Conquest; on this land they settled with their families and became barons or knights, and were responsible for the land, and for the people on the land, to the King.

The re-allotment of the land. When William conquered the country it consisted of Crown lands, estates of nobles or of monasteries, and the land of the free

villages, where the villagers owed neither service nor rent for their holdings. After the Conquest William was able to re-allot all this land, for all the Saxons who had held it either had fought *against* him or had not fought *for* him, and therefore, as King of England, he treated them as traitors and took their land from them. To some of the Saxons William regranted their land on payment of a fine ; others lost their land altogether, and it was given to Normans. All the villagers were given a lord, from whom they held their land, either as freemen or villeins. All the land in England came under lords, and for that land the lords were bound to serve the King. The estates thus held varied greatly in size, and one man's land might lie in different parts of the country. The King kept large estates for himself in almost every county, and much forest land was set apart for his hunting.

The Forests. The Royal Forests were tracts of wooded country in which the red and fallow deer, the hare, the boar, and the wolf ran wild. Where forest belonged to private owners, the King had rights of hunting ; the killing of wild beasts by any one except the owner or the King was forbidden, and special Forest Laws were made.

In 1079 William I declared all the land between Southampton Water, the Solent, and the Avon to be Royal Forest. This is still known as the New Forest. In order to make it, large numbers of people were driven from their homes. Therefore people said it was a divine judgement when one of his sons, Richard, was killed in the New Forest by a stag, and another, Rufus, by an assassin's arrow.

Special courts were set up to deal with offenders under

the Forest Laws, and the punishments they inflicted were very severe. There are no such laws now; they were dropped once and for all in 1688.

The Manor. The Manor usually consisted of a village, with the house or 'hall' of the lord of the manor, with a church and priest's house, and with enough land in the neighbourhood to maintain the whole of the people.

THE NORMAN KEEP, LANCASTER.

The village consisted of wooden cottages on either side of a road, near some stream. The lord's house was near by, surrounded by the park, as it would now be called. The rest of the manor consisted of three parts: arable fields, the common—on which each villager had the right of keeping a certain number of cattle or geese—and woodland or waste, where pigs could be driven for feeding, and where wood could be gathered for fuel, and bracken cut for fodder.

The 'Townships'. The villagers were all either free

or unfree. The freemen paid to the lord rent for their holdings, but could leave them if they chose to go anywhere else. The unfree were villeins: in return for their holdings they had to work upon their lord's land two or three days each week. They could not leave the land, and, if it was sold, the villeins went with it. Every one outside the towns was settled on a piece of land, and, though life was hard, his livelihood was secure.

The Courts. All the villagers met in the manorial court, the lord's steward presiding. The villagers present were themselves the judges of the court. For important matters there was the court of the hundred. This consisted of all the freeholders, and the four best men and the reeve (head man) of each village. The county had a court too, the chief official being called the sheriff.

Every lord of a manor held his land as a tenant either from some greater lord or direct from the King. In return each was bound to supply a certain number of armed knights for service with his overlord, who was bound to supply them, in his turn, for service with the King. All the freemen were bound to answer the King's call at any time to defend their country, and this is the law to-day.

William Rufus. Upon the death of William I in 1087 his son, William Rufus, became king. He was strong like his father, but without the elder William's sense of justice. Yet the native English followed him loyally when the barons rose against him. The Norman barons were powerful men, but war and too much power had made them cruel.

Henry I. In Henry's reign Norman and English became more friendly. The King married Edith

(Matilda), a descendant of Edmund Ironside. Her mother, Margaret, was wife of Malcolm III of Scotland. This did not please the Norman barons, but Henry kept them in order, and, when they rose against him, he defeated them at Tinchebrai in Normandy in 1106. When Henry died in 1135 the English remembered his just and firm rule.

Stephen. The seventeen years following the death of Henry I were years of bloodshed and civil war between Henry's daughter Matilda, who was the rightful queen, and Stephen, her cousin, whom the barons had chosen as king. This was a bad time for the country, for without a strong king over all, each baron was able to do as he pleased.

The villeins were compelled to help in building fortified castles. The barons fought against each other with savage fury, and the country was spoiled by robbers, by fire, and by famine. In 1138 Matilda's uncle, David I of Scotland, led an army against Stephen, and was defeated at the ' Battle of the Standard '.

Henry II. In 1153 Matilda's son Henry came to England, and was looked upon by the people as a saviour. Henry, the Angevin, was fiercer than the fiercest baron, more determined than the proudest Norman. Gradually his forces made headway, and in 1153 it was agreed that he should succeed the childless Stephen.

CHAPTER VII

ENGLAND UNDER THE PLANTAGENETS

Henry II. Henry II was the son of Matilda, daughter of Henry I. His mother had married Geoffrey, Count of Anjou; on the death of the Count young Henry in-

CIVIL COSTUME.

ANGLO-SAXON LADY.

LADY OF NORMAN PERIOD.

EFFIGY OF ELEANOR, Q. OF HEN. II.

herited Anjou and added it to his kingdom. He married Eleanor of France, Duchess of Aquitaine. In this way Henry, beside being King of England, became Lord of about half France. During his reign he added Ireland to his empire in 1171, and the overlordship of Scotland in 1174, after capturing William the Lion, King of Scotland. Henry did much to improve the laws and the army.

The Cistercian Monks, who settled in England during this reign, did much good in the land. They cultivated

desert spots, stocked them with sheep, and gave the poor much help and comfort. They were the greatest wool-growers in England at the time, and, with the riches they thus gained, they raised some of the most splendid abbey-churches in England.

We have said that Henry did much to improve the law—he really introduced what we now know and value as the jury system.

Before Henry II's time, trial by ordeal, or by combat, was the only custom. Ordeal was judgement by water or fire ; the suspected person was tested, either by being thrown into a pond, or by holding hot iron. The priest was called upon to decide, according to the result of the test, whether or not the accused was guilty.

Instead of fighting or holding hot iron, two claimants to a piece of property, for instance, could, under the new laws, submit their case to a jury of twelve 'lawful knights', who would try the case before the King's Sheriff, and would decide between the two men.

In cases of violent wrongdoers, robbers or murderers, these were brought before the royal justices, and were tried by ordeal, and, if found guilty, were executed.

To make sure that justice should be done to every one in all parts of his kingdom, Henry sent judges 'on circuit' round the country. This practice is continued to this day.

The judges chosen by the King were able lawyers, who knew the ways of the people in the different shires, and who were skilled in deciding difficult questions.

Thomas Becket. Henry II having brought the nobles under his control, worked hard to gain the mastery over the Church courts, which alone had power to try priests for wrongdoing.

The Great Council of Barons was in favour of this, and in 1164 they drew up the Constitutions of Clarendon, which gave the King's Court sole authority to fix the punishment for guilty priests.

Thomas Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, refused the Church's consent to this. Then began a great quarrel between Church and State.

The Archbishop went into exile for some time. In 1170 a peace was patched up between the King and Becket, and the latter returned to England.

The Archbishop, however, could not forget, and almost at once began to excommunicate some of the King's supporters. This made the King angry, and in a moment of passion he said, 'Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest.' Three knights hearing this, acted at once, and on December 29 they slew the Archbishop on the steps of the altar of Canterbury Cathedral. His body was buried in the Cathedral, where his shrine became an object of pilgrimage, and where miracles were said to happen.

King Henry, repenting of his hasty words, did penance at the tomb.

Conquest of Ireland. Shortly after Becket's death Henry visited Ireland. Seventeen years earlier Pope Adrian IV, claiming that all islands converted to Christianity belonged to him, had presented Ireland to Henry II. The King accepted it, and some years later allowed the Earl of Pembroke ('Strongbow') to go to Ireland and seek his fortune there. Strongbow won from the native chiefs the district now known as Leinster. Henry during his visit called a great meeting of the Irish clergy. He fixed the seat of government at Dublin, which he made a city. From this time until the time of Henry VIII the English monarch was called Lord of Ireland.

Character of the Reign. During Henry's reign it has been said that 'the knights turned their swords into sickles, their lances into pruning hooks; the men returned from the camp to the plough-field; from the tent to the workshop'. When Henry II died England was one of the leading states of Europe, its people prosperous and happy.

Richard I—The Crusades. Richard, son of Henry II, was active, generous, fierce, and unrestrained. His life was spent in fighting, in which he justly gained the name of 'Lion-heart'. At this time Jerusalem was captured by Saladin, Sultan of the Saracens. To regain the Holy Land from this conqueror, the monarchs of France, Germany, and England joined their forces.

In 1191 the English Crusaders—barons and knights who went at their own expense, and the lesser folk, who received pay—landed at Acre, on the coast of Syria, and captured the city.

Then the combined armies marched towards Jerusalem, following the coast, keeping in touch with the ships, which carried food.

After the fall of Acre the French king had gone home; and the Emperor of Germany had been drowned on his way to the Holy Land. Richard was thus left to command the host, but when about thirty miles from Jerusalem the crusading army had to turn back.

The city was strong, the bad season was coming, food and water were scarce, and many of the soldiers had died on the way. Before his army left the Holy Land Richard made a treaty with Saladin which assured safety to any pilgrims who should visit Jerusalem.

The greater part of Richard's army reached England safely, but the King himself was wrecked in the Adriatic, and made a prisoner in Austria.

A minstrel named Blondel sang his way from England through Germany to Austria, and cheered Richard with singing outside his castle-prison.

Richard was kept a prisoner for some time, while his people were raising a ransom of £100,000 (equal to about £2,000,000 to-day) for his release.

The King came back to England, but left again the same year and never returned. Nearly all his time was spent in war against the French king. He lost his life while besieging the castle of Chaluz, belonging to one of his French vassals with whom he had quarrelled over some gold plate found in the ground.

Richard was at his best in the Holy Land; cheerful, self-sacrificing, full of resource; the camp was his home, the saddle and the sword his usual means of exercise. Sir Walter Scott in his novel *The Talisman* so describes him, and also pictures the glory of the Crusades amid the sands of Syria.

King John and Magna Carta. On Richard's death his brother John became king. It was not long before trouble arose between John and his barons. The first cause was the cruel nature of the King; the second was the loss of Normandy in 1204; the third was John's quarrel with the Pope. The barons combined to get rid of the King because of his cruelty, his laziness, and his misgovernment.

After Richard's death, the wily Philip of France was anxious to find cause for quarrelling with his successor. John, who had divorced his wife, sought to marry Isabella of Angoulême, the twelve-year-old daughter of a French count. Isabella, young as she was, was already betrothed to Count Hugh, who appealed to the King of France. Philip, who was John's overlord in France,

summoned the English king to the court of Paris, but John refused to go.

This angered Philip, who anxiously looked for an opportunity to wage war. The opportunity soon came.

John's elder brother Geoffrey was long since dead, but Geoffrey's son Arthur, aged 15, claimed the English crown. The King of France supported him and besieged a castle in which John's mother was living. The English king went to his mother's help, and captured Arthur and his army.

The young prince was kept a prisoner in the castle of Rouen. Early in the next year he disappeared—murdered, it is believed, by John's orders.

The French king invaded Normandy, but John did nothing to oppose him, and as a result all the English possessions in France, except the Channel Islands, were lost.

This loss caused the Norman barons to combine with the English against the King.

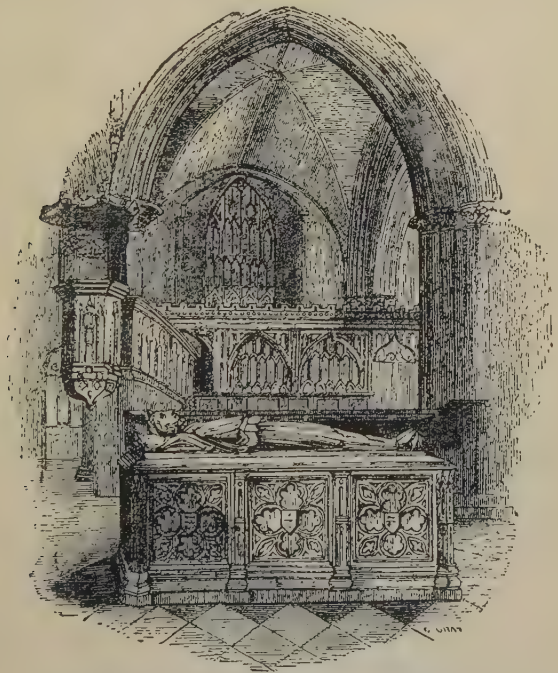
John then quarrelled with the Pope about the appointment of an Archbishop. The Pope chose a sensible, upright Englishman named Stephen Langton: John refused to admit him.

Pope Innocent replied by placing England under an interdict, and for five years the people were without public religious services. The church doors were locked. In 1213 John yielded to the Pope, and agreed to pay a tribute of 1,000 marks (£333 6s. 8d.), each year; Stephen Langton then became Archbishop.

The Great Charter. The King continued to rule so badly that in 1215 the chief barons joined together to lay their grievances before him. They were joined by

the Archbishop on behalf of the clergy, and by the Mayor of London on behalf of the towns.

At Runnymede, a meadow on the Surrey side of the Thames between Staines and Windsor, the Great Charter



TOMB OF KING JOHN, WORCESTER.
(From a woodcut.)

was presented to John, and, with vain and fierce regrets, he accepted it at the sword's point.

The most famous clause in the Great Charter is :

'No free man is to be taken or imprisoned or outlawed or exiled or in any way destroyed, except by the legal judgement of his equals or by the law of the land.'

The Charter also made it clear that the King should not have power to levy taxes on the people by his own will alone.

The barons, knowing that John was not the man to keep his word unless it suited him, had it stated in the Charter that they had the right to make war upon him if he should break his oath. They soon had to do this, and Prince Louis of France, who had been offered the English crown, fought with the barons. It was during this fighting in 1216 that King John died from a high fever.

Shakespeare, in his play, the *History of the Life and Death of King John*, has told the story of the reign. But he does not mention Magna Carta !

Credit is due to John for the attention he paid to the navy, which under the Earl of Salisbury in 1213 destroyed a hundred French ships and captured three hundred more. Philip of France, who had intended to invade England, lost his supply ships and had to return home. Thus, as so often in our history since then, the navy saved the country from invasion.

CHAPTER VIII

THE BEGINNING OF PARLIAMENT

The Great Council. In the early Middle Ages the government of the nation was simply the King assisted by the chief barons, either in a small council called the Curia Regis (Court of the King) or in a larger assembly called the Great or Common Council. This consisted of all the barons. The chief barons were called to the meetings by writ, addressed personally to each. The

lesser barons were called by means of a notice posted on a wall or tree or market-cross in each county. The chief barons, being specially invited, usually attended the Great Council, as indeed they could well afford to do. The lesser barons, who in after years were called ' Knights of the Shire ', being summoned only by public notice, saved themselves the expense, because they felt they were not greatly wanted. Thus the laws of England at this time were passed by the King and the chief barons.

After the signing of Magna Carta all taxes were imposed by the Great Council, and, as this numbered less than a hundred in all, the Knights of the Shires and freemen objected to paying taxes to which they had never consented. To meet this difficulty commissioners were sent to the shires to bargain with the people as to the amount they should pay. This was not very successful, so it was decided that men representing the shires should be added to the Great Council at Westminster. This new Great Council seems to have been the foundation on which our Parliament was built.

The reign of Henry III. The reign of this king, as far as Henry's own efforts at government were concerned, was a striking failure. He disagreed with large numbers of his people. Civil war seemed always near, and open hostilities with his barons were frequent during the latter part of his reign. He had no strength of character, and one writer (Matthew Paris) describes him as the king with the waxen heart.

He was a religious man, devoted to the interests of the Catholic Church, fond of his wife and children, gentle in manner, kindly to his friends. It was indeed his friends that the people objected to. He gave the best positions to the foreign friends of his mother, and also

to those of his wife. He sent large sums of money to Rome.

These acts of the King caused the barons to rise against him. The most powerful of these was Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester.

At the beginning of the reign, when Henry was a minor, public affairs had been transacted by Archbishop Stephen Langton, by the Legate of the Pope, and by William, Earl of Pembroke, an honest man, who as 'Earl Marshall' was head, under the King, of the military system of the land. After William died in 1219, the strong and brave soldier, Hubert de Burgh, who had distinguished himself both on sea and on land, controlled the affairs of State and, as the people said when he was driven into exile, kept England for the English.

From this time things went from bad to worse. Peter des Roches, a French favourite of Henry, was made Bishop of Winchester and became chief man in the kingdom. His treatment of the barons angered them very much, and the King and his people drifted farther apart.

After Henry had reigned for forty-two years (1216–58), the barons under Simon de Montfort formed a 'Parliament' of barons only, at Oxford.

The King, seeing that the barons were strong enough to get their own way, agreed to the 'Provisions of Oxford'. In this document it was laid down that those holding the highest positions should be appointed from year to year, and that the Great Council, or Parliament, should meet three times a year.

Earl Simon's Parliament. From 1259 to 1264 the King and the barons tried to agree and often failed. In 1264 King Louis IX of France was called in to settle

a dispute, but at the 'Mise of Amiens' he decided that the laws of England did not impose any checks on the power of the King greater than were contained in the Great Charter. This displeased the barons, so they made war upon the King. The two sides met near Lewes, on some of the finest riding country in the world. The King's forces were defeated and Henry III himself was captured. Simon at once took steps to call a Parliament, in the name of the King (December 1264).

Full chain mail, A. D. 1277.

This is the first really national Parliament of England. It consisted of Lords, Commoners, and the clergy. This Parliament did not succeed in arranging a government which both King and barons would accept. War broke out afresh, and at the battle of Evesham Earl Simon was killed fighting against Henry's son Edward.

Simon de Montfort was a great and good man, who had stood for orderly government, and had tried to stop the evils that follow the acts of a weak and foolish king. So well loved by the people was he, that when he died, a law had to be made to prevent them from worshipping him as a saint.

During Henry III's reign various bodies of Friars, followers of St. Dominic and St. Francis, came to England. They became teachers of the poor, and were greatly liked by the people. These Friars brought no money with them; they were simply clad in long grey cloaks, which caused them to be known as

'The Grey Friars'. Being fond of learning they gradually found their way to Oxford, where several schools were already established. There they studied, and many of them became doctors and attended the poor and sick.

In the thirteenth century there had grown up round the walls, and in the dried-up disused ditches of every city, poor quarters, very dirty and very insanitary. Here disease was never absent, and leprosy was a scourge that hospitals could not deal with. It was in such places of dirt, misery, and vice that the Grey Friars first settled.

As their numbers increased, so did their means. The early wooden chapels gave place to stately churches, and solid convents of stone were built to house the brethren.

One of the most noted of the friars was Roger Bacon, who became a great scientist. Because of this he was accused of being a magician, and for ten years was kept a prisoner in Paris. Pope Clement IV obtained his release, and he returned to England to continue his studies. He wrote many books on chemistry, mechanics, logic, mathematics, and religion. He died in 1294.

King Edward I. Henry III died while his son Edward was fighting against the Saracens in the Holy Land. Edward landed in England in 1274, after being away for four years. He was thirty-three years old at the time, was tall and dignified, and had a kindly expression. He was a splendid horseman, fond of manly exercises, and a brave soldier. Like his father, he was a man of simple and pure life, and deeply attached to his family. His love for his wife, who had gone to the Holy Land with him before he became king, and who

died in 1290, is shown by the 'Eleanor Crosses' which he set up at each stage where her body rested on the way to Westminster, the last place being Charing Cross.

The reign of this great king lasted till 1307, and was marked by great events in war and in peace. He was a fine governor and an able lawyer, and did all he could to improve the laws, particularly by making it easier for people to purchase land.

Edward's Parliaments. At Easter, 1275, Edward summoned a Parliament to Westminster, and from papers discovered in 1910 we learn that both Lords and Commons were called together.

For some time after this Edward relied on the Great Council only. This did not please the people, so in 1295 he called together another Parliament, in which archbishops, bishops, and abbots, together with earls and barons, formed the Estate (or House) of Lords; while two knights from each county and two burgesses from each large town formed the Estate of the Commons. Thus the real foundation of our present Parliament was laid.

CHAPTER IX

GUIENNE, WALES, SCOTLAND

We have now seen how, almost from the earliest times, the men and women in Britain, whether under the Roman, Saxon, or Norman law, had learned to live at peace with each other, to pursue their own business, live with their own families, and to submit their differences, when they had any, to the courts. The states of Europe were not so fortunate; the only common law above them—that of the Catholic Church—had no power

to settle their differences. They often fell out together and strove for what they wanted by force. Edward I was different from this ; he would not appeal to arms without trying to settle his differences by peaceful means.

The Welsh and Scots did not own English rule. In France the short frontier of Guienne alone separated the French from Edward's possessions. Guienne was governed by the English king in a kindly way, the towns being left to manage their own affairs. A brisk trade existed between England and Guienne, and ships plied regularly from Bordeaux to London, bringing wine (the claret for which the Médoc region of Guienne is so famous), and carrying back wool.

Trade also went on between Guienne and the Cinque Ports. These were Sandwich, Dover, Hythe, Romney, and Hastings, which were given by William the Conqueror special privileges and special duties with regard to the defence of England by sea. Dover and Hastings were bound to furnish twenty ships each to the King's navy when required, and the other ports contributed in proportion to their size. To the original number of five, two others, Winchelsea and Rye, were subsequently added. Old Winchelsea was overwhelmed by the sea in 1287, and New Winchelsea, the present picturesque town, was founded by Edward I. One of the busiest of the Cinque Ports was Rye, a lovely town set on a steep little hill, and now high and dry on the coastal plain of Sussex.

The French were anxious to add the Duchy of Guienne to their own dominions. England would not give it up, so war followed. Henry III had lost all his French possessions except Guienne, for which he had to do

homage to the French king. Even Edward I lost a part of the Duchy.

Gradually France advanced its borders until by the time of Edward III only a small coastal strip was left as England's share.

Wales. Just in the same way that France was striving to gain Guienne, so the English Crown was trying to lay hold on Wales. Scotland might remain independent, but south of the Tweed there was scarcely room for two states. But the truth is, Wales with England did not make two states : it made many ; for, since being driven behind their mountains, the Welsh still continued to live in tribes, and as Ireland was an island of kings, so Wales was a land of princes. English barons settled near the Welsh borders, so the clash of arms was seldom absent. No serious attempts, however, had been made to annex the independent parts of Wales since the Norman Conquest. Among their mountains and valleys, in the island of Anglesey, along their pleasant coast, the Welsh lived happily enough under their chiefs or princes. Fond of music and poetry, they kept open house and gave hearty welcome to the stranger. An old writer (Gerald the Welshman) tells us how in every house it was the duty of the young women to talk agreeably to all strangers, and to play to them upon the harp. 'No one ever begs,' he says, 'for the houses of all are open to all.' They loved the free country life, and they loved their country for itself. 'They anxiously', says he,

'study the defence of their country and liberty ; for these they will fight, for these they undergo hardships, and for these willingly sacrifice their lives. . . . In times of peace, the young men, by penetrating the deep

recesses of the woods, and climbing the tops of mountains, learn by practice to endure fatigue through day and night.'

Their musical instruments, the writer says, delighted and charmed the ear. 'In their concerts they sang in many different parts.' They were active and cleanly; 'both sexes exceed any other nation in attention to their teeth, which they render like ivory, by constantly rubbing them with green hazel and wiping with a woollen cloth'.

CARNARVON CASTLE, built by EDWARD I and EDWARD II, 1283–1322. Note the development of the 'curtain wall' with strong embattled towers.

Edward I's Welsh wars. In Edward's time the independent tribes of Wales joined together and threatened to extend their border into England. The Welsh of the north and south joined together under Llewellyn, Lord of Snowdon. Edward I accordingly, on coming to the throne, demanded the oath of allegiance from the Prince of Wales, the title which Llewellyn had assumed. Llewellyn would not consent to this, so Edward went to war. In 1277 Llewellyn was defeated, and he then agreed to Edward's terms. Five years later he revolted,

was defeated, and killed in a battle fought in the valley of the Wye. His brother David was captured, and Edward had him tried and hanged for treason.

In 1284 it was settled that all that was left of tribal Wales should belong to the English Crown, and English law made to run throughout. The land now became a Principality, and the eldest son of the English king has always been prince. Until 1536, when the Principality was united to England by Act of Parliament, the Prince governed it as his own dependency. Magnificent castles were built to watch over the newly gained country: Aberconway Castle, Carnarvon, Criccieth, Harlech, round which towns grew up and trade began to flourish. Yet the Welsh have never ceased to remember their own history; they read their ancient books, sing the songs of the bards, speak the Welsh tongue.

Scotland. The Scottish people had been formed from Picts, Danes, and Angles, as well as from the Celtic tribe of 'Scots', who are said to have come from the north of Ireland. In 1286 Alexander III of Scotland was thrown off his horse near Kinghorn, and broke his neck. The heir to his throne was Margaret, the 'Maid of Norway'. Edward I proposed that his son, Prince Edward, should marry the Maid; the Scottish Parliament agreed, but the Maid died in the Orkneys, from the effects of her passage across the North Sea. Thus the chance of making one strong, orderly, and progressive state over the whole island was lost for three hundred years.

After the death of Margaret, several people laid claim to the Crown of Scotland. The three chief claimants were English barons—John Balliol, Robert Bruce, and

John Hastings. The Scottish nobles asked Edward I to decide the claim, as he was known to be a just man. After due consideration Edward decided in favour of John Balliol. Both Balliol and Bruce were descended from old Scottish kings, but Balliol's line was the elder, so Edward's decision was just. John Balliol thus became King of Scotland as Edward's man, and the English king became the over-lord. He claimed the right to summon Scots barons to London to have their lawsuits tried at Westminster. The Scots did not like this expensive way of settling their affairs ; accordingly, when King John Balliol agreed with Edward's plan, they deposed him. John was thus forced to take the side of his own people against the English king in order to regain his power. Edward summoned Balliol to appear before him at Berwick, but he refused to attend and declared Scotland's independence.

Edward then invaded the country in 1296. The strong castle of Dunbar, which blocked the east coast road from England to Scotland, held out under the heroic Agnes, Countess of March. But the Scottish army that came to relieve Dunbar was routed ; the castle surrendered ; and by July the whole country up to Aberdeen was conquered by Edward's army. John Balliol was taken prisoner, and Scotland became an English province.

The War of Scottish Independence. It was at this time, when the fortunes of the country seemed at their worst, that the heroic period of Scotland began. The Scots were a poor people ; they were either traders in their ancient little towns, or small farmers.

It was only the barons in the south who were at all a match for the English. Apart from these barons,

there was no Scottish army. Yet the poor leaderless people rose against their powerful conquerors in order to try and make good their right to settle their own national destiny, and to rule their own country.

Under Edward, Scotland had become an English province, with a governor, judges, treasurer, and sheriffs. Peace, order, justice were his aims. But though the King was just, his agents were not always so.

William Wallace. William Wallace, knight of Elderslie in Clydesdale, had a dispute with an English official which ended in blows and the death of the Englishman. He thus became a marked man, with the whole weight

of the English Government against him. He joined a band of 'outlaws' in the south of Scotland. Soon risings arose in every quarter of the country. The revolt became general: small farmers and peasants joined Wallace's standard; a few knights formed a company of cavalry. From the wooded heights above Stirling on the Forth, on September 11, 1297, Wallace watched the English forces slowly file across the narrow bridge. When about half of them had got across, he fell with all his army upon them and utterly destroyed them.

The next year Edward led an army into Scotland, defeated Wallace at Falkirk, and regained power in the land as far north as Perth. But throughout the country men refused to acknowledge Edward, and lived free and unharmed on the produce of their land. Hostilities never ceased while Wallace was alive. In 1305 he was betrayed to the English, tried in London, and executed as a traitor.

Robert Bruce. In the following year Robert Bruce became a leader in Scotland. During Wallace's struggles against Edward, Bruce had fought on the English side. This did not seem to make the Scots think worse of him, although history cannot clear Robert Bruce of the charge of self-seeking. Nor can his conduct at the meeting with John Comyn, another claimant for the Scottish Crown, a meeting which ended in Comyn being pierced by Bruce's sword, be termed fair, even in that age, when violent death often followed swiftly upon hot words (1306).

The last contest of Edward I. Misfortune and sore trials followed Bruce for a time. In the same year as he slew the 'Red' Comyn he raised the standard of revolt against England, but was defeated at Methven, and for

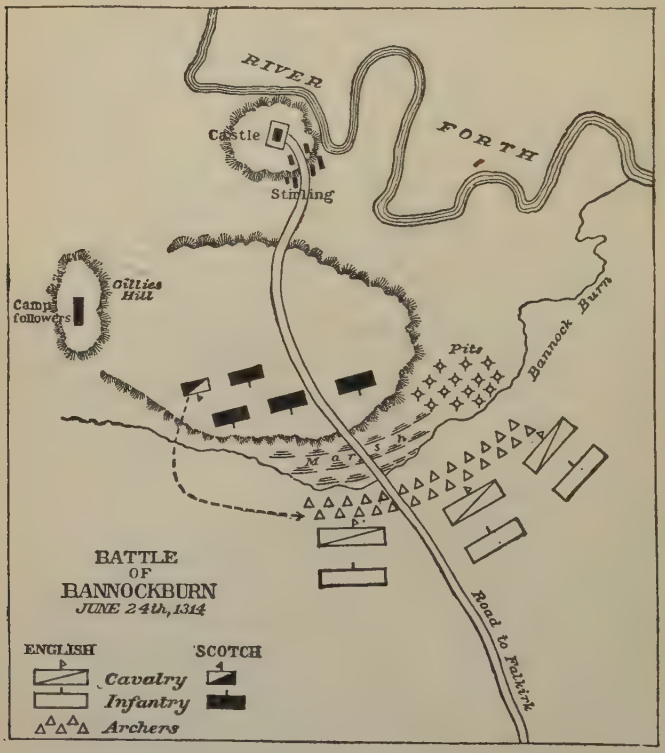
safety took ship across the sea to a small island off the coast of Antrim. It was here that tradition says he took heart when watching a spider persevere in making its web after repeated failures.

He went back to Scotland and raised an army to meet the English forces. Edward I, who was at the time very ill, roused himself for a last effort. He could only travel in a litter at the rate of two miles a day. On the morning of July 7, 1307, he died in the arms of his attendants.

Edward II. The new king was a pleasure-seeking young man, in whom the barons had no confidence.

Bannockburn. In 1313 the King prepared an invasion of Scotland. A fine army, numbering perhaps 20,000 fighting-men (and also smiths, farriers, masons, servants, traders), assembled at Berwick and marched through Scotland to relieve Stirling. They found the Scots army, chiefly footmen, ready to receive them, below the walls of Stirling. King Robert was a great leader, and his army was in the best of spirits. He had prepared carefully concealed pits in front of his lines; his men were taught to stand firmly together, shield touching shield, with the formidable long spear held steadily outwards. The battle took place on June 24, 1314. Edward II sent his archers too far ahead of the rest of his forces, and without protection. Bruce's cavalry charged into their ranks and cut them down. The concealed pits caused confusion in the lines of English knights and men-at-arms. The tide of battle turned, and the Scots advanced upon the English lines. Soon the whole of Edward's forces were in flight, save those who lay dead or wounded upon the trampled blood-stained ground, where now fair green fields delight the eye that looks down from Stirling Castle.

The downfall of Edward II. The Battle of Bannockburn destroyed all hopes of Edward II to recover Scotland. The rest of his reign is a story of quarrelling



with his barons. He became unpopular with his people, and his wife Isabella of France plotted against him.

In September 1326 the Queen, with the Earl of March, together with fighting-men from France, sailed from Holland and landed at Ipswich. Edward fled from London, was captured in South Wales, and imprisoned

in Berkeley Castle, Gloucestershire. Parliament declared him deposed, and then he was murdered in his prison (September 21, 1327).

Edward III. The Independence of Scotland. Edward II's son became king as Edward III, under the regency of the Earl of March and Isabella; their rule was not liked by the people and ended in failure.

The English Government had never recognized Bruce as King of Scotland. Robert Bruce objected to this, and in 1327 invaded England.

Edward III went with an army to meet the Scots. The opposing forces faced each other at Durham; in the morning the Scots were gone.

At last, as the English were unable to bring the Scots to battle, and as their forces were gradually growing less, the Government agreed to make peace. By the Treaty of Northampton, April 1328, it acknowledged Bruce as King of Scotland. In the following year Bruce died. Almost his last wish was that his friend, Lord James Douglas, should carry his heart to Granada, where he knew that hard fighting was still to be done against the 'Infidel' Moors. Douglas met his death while carrying out his dead king's wishes.

The bad government by Mortimer, Earl of March, and Isabella ended in the execution of the Earl in 1330.

CHAPTER X

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR: PART I

The Hundred Years' War between England and France had a harmful effect upon both countries. It altered the characters both of kings, nobles, townsmen, and peasants, while the whole of Europe groaned under the scourge.

Gradually out of the struggle order came. But this did not take place in England until the bad effects of the foreign war brought about the great internal struggle known as the Wars of the Roses.

The English Crown had held Guienne since 1154, and as it was an important part of the country of France, it was only natural that the King of France and his people desired to have sole possession of it. On the other hand, it had so long been under the rule of the English kings, that it was also natural that Edward III wished to keep it; hence it was a cause of strife between the two nations.

There were, however, other events which helped to increase the enmity. Philip VI of France had helped the Scots to expel Edward Balliol (son of John Balliol), who had been restored to the throne of Scotland by Edward III. Another cause of strife between the two countries was maritime competition. Both English and French sailors vied with each other in securing trade in Spain and Portugal. Occasionally each would seize ships or goods of the other nation, and the Channel became a scene of piracy. The kings on each side of the Channel called on each other to put a stop to it; but their power was small, and the piracy went on. Edward III, how-

ever, proudly claimed the ' lordship of the Narrow Seas ', and as the French denied this, one more cause was added to the motives pressing him to war.

After going to war, Edward, in 1340, assumed the title of King of France. The claim is important chiefly because it led Henry V in the next century to renew the war with France, in order to set himself upon the French throne. When Charles IV of France died in 1328 he had no children ; his sister Isabella was Edward's mother, and through this relationship Edward III had a sort of claim. Philip, a cousin of the dead king, had been chosen by the French barons as ruler of France.

Stages of the War. The Hundred Years' War was not fought continuously throughout the year, nor was it fought every year.

The first part of the Hundred Years' War may be taken as extending from 1338 to the year 1396, when Richard II made peace and married the Princess Isabella of France. The second part was from 1415 to the final loss of the English provinces in 1453.

Five great events mark the history of the war down to the Treaty of Bretigny : these are the Battle of Sluys (1340), Crécy (1346), the capture of Calais (1347), Poitiers (1356), and then comes the Treaty itself (1360). The Battle of Sluys is the most famous of the mediaeval sea-fights of England. The English were going to invade France, and the French were defending. The French navy consisted chiefly of small ships. The English fleet consisted of a few King's ships (not more than seven or eight), merchant ships, and ships supplied by the ports of the south and east coast.

On June 23, 1340, Edward was sailing towards Flanders. The French fleet was posted off the town of

Sluys, at the head of the estuary. There were probably about a hundred and fifty small ships on either side. As the result of hard fighting on June 24 and 25 (1340) the bulk of the French fleet was destroyed or captured.

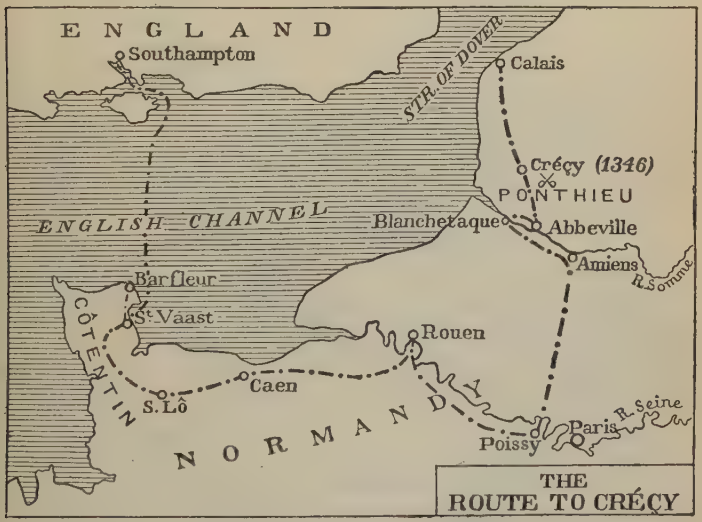
The great writer Froissart thus describes the battle :

'This was on Mid-summer even in the year of our Lord M.CCCXL., all the English fleet was departed out of the river of Thames and took the way to Sluys. The King of England and his men came sailing till he came before Sluys : and when he saw so great a number of ships that their masts seemed to be like a great wood, he demanded of the master of his ship what people he thought they were. He answered, "Sir, I think they be Normans laid here by the French King, and hath done great displeasure in England, brent your town of Hampton and taken your great ship the *Christofer*." "Ah," quoth the King, "I have long desired to fight with the Frenchmen, and now shall I fight with some of them by the grace of God and Saint George ; for truly they have done me so many displeasures, that I shall be revenged, an I may." Then the King set all his ships in order, the greatest before, well furnished with archers, and ever between two ships of archers, he had one ship with men of arms ; . . . There began a sore battle on both parts : archers and cross-bows began to shoot, and men of arms approached and fought hand to hand : and the better to come together they had great hooks and grappers of iron, to cast out of one ship into another, and so tied them fast together. There were many deeds of arms done, and at last the great *Christofer* was first won by the Englishmen, and all that were within it taken or slain.'

The Campaigns of the Earl of Lancaster. The defeat of the French ships at Sluys was a great boon to English seafaring in the Channel, but it did not make Gascony secure. This was accomplished by Henry, Earl of Lancaster, a dashing leader of feudal cavalry, who made

three ' raids ' throughout Gascony in 1345 and 1346, with some hundreds of English knights and men-at-arms and a thousand or two Gascons. He captured most of the fortresses.

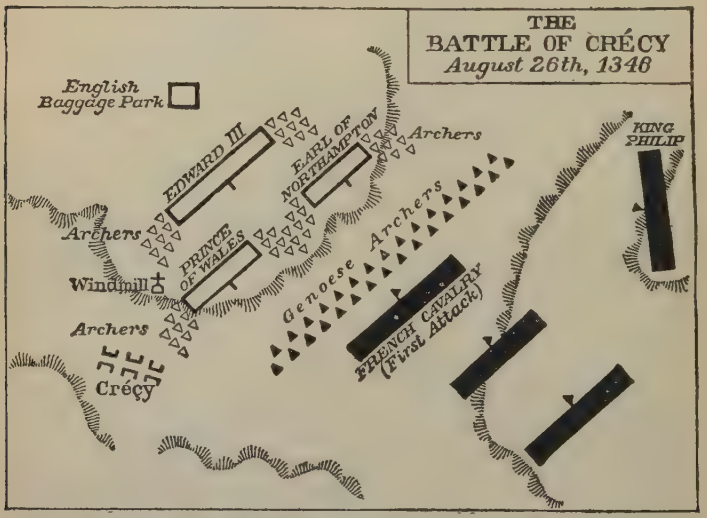
Crécy. In summer, 1346, Edward III himself took the field with a fine army. It consisted of about 2,500 mounted knights and men-at-arms, 10,000 archers, and



perhaps about 10,000 infantry. Sailing from Portsmouth, the fleet landed the soldiers on the French coast on July 12, 1346.

Edward marched inland after taking a lot of booty from towns on or near the coast. Philip of France allowed the enemy to get almost to the gates of Paris, their advance being plainly marked by the smoke of burning villages. At length Edward reached the forest of Crécy, on the outskirts of which the famous battle

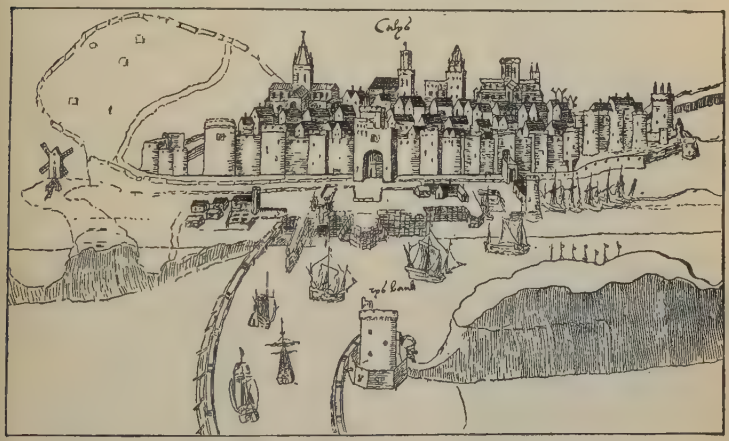
was fought. The French army attacked the English with vastly superior numbers; but Edward's better disciplined army won the day. The Genoese cross-bow men, who fought for the French, attacked and retreated time after time. When the French king saw them fleeing he gave orders that they should be pursued and slain.



The Siege of Calais and the Battle of Neville's Cross. Edward's next move was to go straight on to Calais, the best harbour on the north of France, a rich fishing-port, and a stronghold of the French pirates, who had made the Channel so dangerous for our shipping. The Scots, in order to help their friends, the French, invaded the north of England in October 1346. In his absence Edward's wife, Queen Philippa, met and defeated them in battle at Neville's

Cross, in Durham, and took their king, David II, prisoner.

The town of Calais held out till August 3, 1347, when the garrison opened the gates. Edward did not destroy the city, but most of the inhabitants were compelled to leave their homes, taking with them their personal property. Englishmen were invited by Edward III to settle in Calais, being promised land there without pay-



CALAIS TOWN AND HARBOUR. From an old MS.

ment. Thus Calais became an English colony. The exporting of wool from England was all done through Calais by a trading company known as the 'Society of the Staple'. Calais remained a thriving English colony till 1558.

Poitiers. The plague, known as the Black Death, broke out in 1349, and put a stop to the fighting for a time. In 1356, however, the English Government felt strong enough to renew the war, and an invasion of the French kingdom was planned by Edward, the

'Black' Prince. On August 9 (1356) he set forth with about six thousand men and captured the important city of Périgueux. He gained an enormous amount of rich spoils from the corn-land and wine-land districts through which he passed. King John of France had gathered an army at least three times the size of the English forces to meet the Black Prince. They met about six miles from the beautiful old city of Poitiers, from which the battle takes its name. The main body of the English consisted of archers, who were strongly posted in a gap with hedges on either side. The Prince held himself in reserve on the hill near by. Everything went successfully for the English, and at the end of the day the French king was a prisoner, and his soldiers either captive, dead, or in flight.

In May 1360 the Treaty of Bretigny was signed, and the English king was once more firmly established as Duke of Guienne, free from the power of the French king. By the treaty the French also acknowledged Calais and the country round it to be an English possession. In those days it was, however, very difficult to retain foreign possessions, because it was not possible to keep a standing army in a foreign country. Thus we find that the French gradually exerted pressure against those noblemen in Guienne who held the land for the English.

The Black Prince in Guienne. War broke out in consequence of the expedition which the Black Prince made from Guienne into Spain to help King Pedro of Castile against a pretender to the Castilian throne. The Black Prince sympathized with the lawful monarch, and hoped, possibly, also to gain valuable support from Castile in return. A great French leader, Bertrand du Guesclin, brought from France a large number of

soldiers, and joined the Pretender's forces. Thus two of the greatest warriors of the day, Edward the Black Prince and Bertrand du Guesclin, were opposed to each other. The Black Prince won the day; but Pedro the Cruel sent his English friends back without any reward. Broken in health and fortune, Prince Edward returned to Guienne to find it on the verge of revolt. The French hastened to renew the war, and from that time, till Henry V became King of England, the English cause declined.

THE BLACK PRINCE.

There are three reasons for the decline of the English power in Guienne. In the first place the King, Edward III, had become weak both in health and capacity for government. In his later years he gave way to loose pleasures, and allowed greedy and wicked favourites to make fortunes at the cost of the people.

Secondly, the power of Castile was added to that of France. After the Black Prince left Spain, the pretender to the throne of Castile, whom he had fought against, drove Pedro from the throne, and remembering how Bertrand du Guesclin had assisted him against Prince Edward, he repaid him by supporting the French.

Castile had a fleet, and this, added to the French ships, was able to take the command of the sea from the English navy, which Edward had badly neglected during the last years of his reign.

The third reason was the activity of Bertrand, whom the French king, Charles V, made Constable of France. He gathered mercenary soldiers—hard, skilful men, whose trade was war—to his standard. He never offered pitched battle to the English, but gave them no rest. He would besiege small towns, cut off supplies, capture stragglers, lay waste stretches of country by sudden raids, and so wear out the vigilance of the English officers. Edward died in 1377. Thus, after fifty years of bloodshed, the English were left with little more than boundaries they held in 1337. Calais, however, was still an outpost of English power, and a centre of trade.

CHAPTER XI

CHAUCER, WYCLIFFE, AND THE REIGN OF RICHARD II

Condition of England in the fourteenth century. The energy of the English nation, which achieved such brilliant success at Crécy and Poitiers, showed itself also in literature and in religion. There is no doubt that before the Black Death of 1349, and again after the Peace of Bretigny, 1360, England was a prosperous country. The nobles did not devote their whole time to war, but were interested in art and letters. The great Churchmen were building the magnificent English cathedrals. The middle classes were self-respecting and strong; the peasants had greater freedom and more

possession of the soil than they had ever had since the Conquest. The wool-trade had now become a great national business, which kept the shipping busy and increased the foreign trade.

At the beginning of the fourteenth century the villeins, small tenants on manorial estates, were bound to work so many days each week for their lords, and were prevented by law from leaving the land. Later the lords allowed the villeins to pay about fourpence an acre for their land, instead of working for so many days a week; in this way they gradually gained their freedom. Under these circumstances the villein lived with his family in his own cottage. He grew his own wheat, killed and cured his own bacon, brewed his own ale. He might be one of the four elected from the manor to attend the shire-moot, to hear small lawsuits under the sheriff, or to elect the county member of parliament. His children might rise in the world; by settling in a borough for a year and a day, a villein's son became free, and might rise to be a merchant or a mayor.

The Black Death. This prosperous condition of the people was destroyed suddenly in 1349 by the Black Death, a plague which, coming from China, swept across Europe, and at last reached England. Half the population is said to have perished; villages were almost emptied, the land went out of cultivation; in the crowded insanitary towns the people died in large numbers, and their bodies were collected and thrown into pits.

The Statute of Labourers. The result of this calamity was a great scarcity of labourers to till the land. Those who were left asked double the wages they had formerly received. Parliament, in 1351, passed an Act, the famous Statute of Labourers, stating that wages should

be on just the same scale as they had been before the coming of the Black Death. The labourers bitterly resented this law, and it had little effect, except to make enmity between the classes. The law also said that the price of food should remain the same.

The statute proved a failure, and when attempts were made to enforce it a savage rebellion broke out. This, which is known as the ' Peasants' Revolt ', occurred in 1381.

The Peasants' Revolt, 1381. Edward III, who died in 1377, was succeeded by Richard II, a boy ten years of age, son of the Black Prince. The Government, which had been so bad in the last reign, did not improve. Taxes were increased. The discontent of the lower class grew stronger ; open hatred was shown to the landowners.

The English labourer remembered days when food had been plentiful; now starvation stared him and his family in the face.

Thus a general discontent blazed out in 1381, when Wat Tyler, the Kentishman, struck down the tax-gatherer who insulted him and his family. The men of Kent flocked together. At St. Albans and in Norfolk and Suffolk the people rose and burned the houses of their landlords.

The Government was taken by surprise. The Kentishmen marched to London, destroying the manor houses all along the way. At Blackheath they held a great meeting. It was then that John Ball, a priest who for years had been working among the people, preached a sermon in which he quoted the famous rhyme :

> When Adam delved and Eve span,
> Who was then a gentleman ?

This teaching that all men were equal was welcomed by

the insurgents. They murdered Archbishop Simon, and a palace called the Savoy was burned. At Smithfield young King Richard came boldly with the Mayor of London to meet the insurgents and to hear their grievances. They demanded that they should all be free men; Richard consented. While they were talking, Wat Tyler appeared to threaten the King; the Mayor of London drew his sword and cut him down. Angry shouts arose from the insurgents, and they began to bend their bows. Richard, however, riding fearlessly forward, called out, 'I will be your leader.' The rebels, awed by the majesty, the beauty, and bravery of the young monarch, relaxed their bows. The tumult died down, and the men returned to their country homes. The King's Council then commenced to hunt out the rebels. Some hundreds suffered death, and the promise of the King to abolish villeinage was not fulfilled.

The results of the Peasants' Revolt. Although the 'Peasants' Revolt' appeared to fail, yet in the long run it greatly helped to put an end to villeinage. To save trouble with the labourers, the lords began to accept quit-rents. This meant that by paying a fixed sum yearly—about sevenpence an acre—the villein need not work for his lord. A copy of the agreement was given to the labourer, who was then said to hold his land by 'Copy'. Thus the copyholder became almost as important as the freeholder. He could do anything with his land except fell trees or dig quarries; he could even sell it. He became really a yeoman of England.

About this time the leasehold system became common. A lease 'for three lives' lasted throughout the lifetime of three persons, all of whom were living when the agreement was made. With the death of the last lessor,

the lord could allow the lease to be renewed on payment of a ' fine ', or he could take back the land and ' enclose ' it in one of his farms.

Wycliffe. John Wycliffe, a priest, spent the first half

JOHN WYCLIFFE.

of his active life lecturing at Oxford, and the last part as parish priest at Lutterworth. At this time the Pope had left Rome, owing to disturbances in Italy ; and in the sunny land of Provence the Papal Court became gay and worldly. The Pope appointed Italians and Frenchmen to rich churches in England ; others he made canons or bishops.

The English Parliament passed a law, called the Statute of Provisors, which forbade these men to take these appointments ; and another, called the Statute of Praemunire, to prevent people submitting cases of law to the Pope.

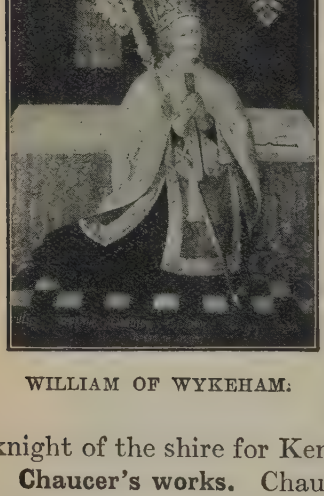
Wycliffe became a great preacher against the power of the Pope. He also spoke strongly against the worldly English bishops, whose wealth was too great, he said, and should be used to increase the pay of the lesser clergy, or to relieve the poor. The great nobles, also, he said, had no right to riches or authority while they lived in sin.

The mass of the people agreed with Wycliffe, who gathered round him a body of disciples, 'the Poor Preachers', and sent them out to work among the common people, and make the Gospel better known to them. He and his pupils translated the New Testament into homely English, and thus many men came to know the Gospel story as they had never known it before. The clergy did not look with favour on the Poor Preachers and their followers, who became known as Lollards or babblers.

Some part of their teaching was altogether against the teaching of the Church, and this in the next reign, that of Henry IV, brought about the martyrdom of many of the Lollards by burning. John Wycliffe died at Lutterworth in 1384. Another great preacher, William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester, built and endowed the great public school—Winchester College. He also established New College at Oxford.

Chaucer. England was fortunate in the last half of the fourteenth century in seeing the foundation of the grand English prose literature with Wycliffe, and of

English poetry with Chaucer. Between the Anglo-Saxon period and the latter part of the reign of Edward III there is little more than the Latin drinking songs of Walter Map in the reign of Henry II. The work of Chaucer is among the most beautiful and charming of all our literature. His father was a wine merchant of London, who was wise enough to give his son the best education of the day, and later was able to procure young Geoffrey a post at the King's Court. In 1359 Chaucer fought in France and was taken prisoner; next year he was ransomed; in 1370 he was sent to Genoa to arrange a commercial treaty. The influence of Italy may be traced all through his works—the influence, in particular, of Petrarch the poet, and of Boccaccio the story-teller. In 1376 Chaucer was elected to Parliament as a knight of the shire for Kent. He died in 1400.



WILLIAM OF WYKEHAM.

Chaucer's works. Chaucer was a busy man, moving among the great men of the land. Yet whether travelling, fighting, or negotiating, he found time to write the long poems, beautiful, finished stories, which remain to give pleasure to all the ages. It was after his return from Italy that Chaucer wrote his greatest poems, 'Troilus and Criseyde', 'The House of Fame', 'The Legende of Good Women'. The work, however, which is most read to-day is the *Canterbury Tales*. It is the

story of a number of pilgrims who met in the Tabard Inn at Southwark, to go on pilgrimage to the shrine of St. Thomas à Becket at Canterbury. The host of the Tabard Inn proposed that the pilgrims on their way should each tell a story to beguile the time. There were thirty pilgrims in all, so that if completed there would

CIVIL COSTUME.

About 1200.

Temp. Ed. II.

WM. OF HATFIELD, Temp. Ed. III.

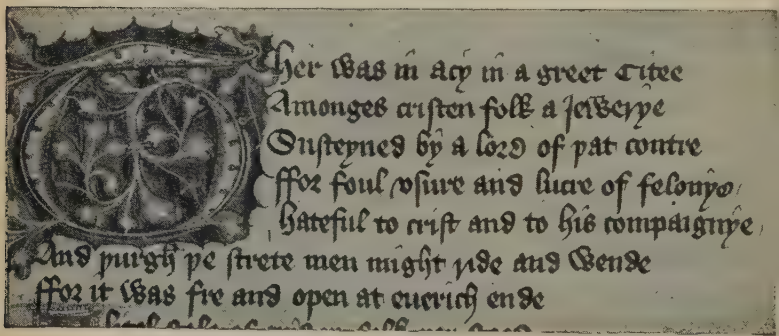
have been thirty tales. Though working to the last, Chaucer had only completed twenty-four tales when he died, in A.D. 1400. The different tales—the Knight's, the Squire's, the Nun's Priest's tale, and so forth—are all told with great humour and in beautiful language. The plots are drawn from ancient history, from legends, and from stories of that day. He pictures the country gentlemen, the sailors, the students and men of learning,

the clergy, the tradesmen, and the small farmers. First comes the knight:

A knight ther was, and that a worthy man,
That fro the tyme that he first began
To ryden out, he loved chivalrye,
Trouthe and honour, fredom and curteisye.

. . . . . .

He never yet no vileinye ne sayde
In al his lyf, un-to no maner wight.
He was a verray parfit gentil knight.


Her was in Asy in a greet Citee
Amonges cristen folk a Jewerye
Sustened by a lord of pat contre
For foul usure and lucre of felonye
Hateful to crist and to his compaignye
And purgh pe strete men mighte ryde and wende
For it was free and open at eyther ende

HANDWRITING about A. D. 1400. Beginning of the *Prioress's Tale* in a famous Chaucer MS.

Then comes the knight's son, his squire, a fashionable young man, with his fair locks set in stiff curls, fastidious and delicate, yet 'wonderly delivere [nimble] and of great strength'. All his thoughts were of honour and glory and love; yet 'he was as fresh as is the month of May'. Then follows the prioress, Madame Eglantyne, talking Anglo-French:

After the scole at Stratford atte Bowe,
For Frensh of Paris was to hir unknowe.

She was very neat-mannered, and when she drank she left no mark of grease on the cup.

The next pilgrim was a hunting monk, from some rich abbey:

> An out-rydere that lovede venerye;
> A manly man, to been an abbot able.
> Ful many a deyntee hors hadde he in stable.

He rode hard, and his bridle could be heard jangling in the wind as clear as the chapel bell.

The next pilgrim, too, was a clergyman, and a bad one. He belonged to the Order of Friars of St. Francis, which had come to England in the year 1224, and had devoted itself to work among the poor and leprous, in the foul crowded quarters of the towns. By Chaucer's day the Friars had fallen from their high ideals. The Friar of the Prologue made himself popular enough with the well-to-do country people, for he sang a good song, gave presents of pins and knives to the women, and at his own cost had paid for the marriage of some of them. But he had no thought for the poor people and lepers.

The Church was a great feature of the life of the Middle Ages, and Chaucer gives full prominence to it. The examples already given are not greatly to its credit. There are two others in the Prologue, however, who inspire nothing but respect. One is the Parson, the priest of a poor country parish, who devoted his whole life to his flock, took no thought of money, and sought for no preferment:

> A bettre preest, I trowe that nowher noon is.
> He wayted after no pompe and reverence,
> Ne maked him a spyced conscience,
> But Cristes lore, and his apostles twelve,
> He taughte, but first he folwed it himselve.

The other example of the Church was a Clerk of Oxford, a member of the University, in holy orders, as were all learned men at that time. He rode a lean horse, and his coat was threadbare. He was studious and modest, and when he spoke was careful to speak to the point, and correctly.

The Prologue should be read in full. One by one the goodly procession of old English society passes before the reader: the Yeoman, 'in cote and hood of greene', with a sheaf of arrows under his belt, a sword at one side, and a 'gay daggere' at the other; the Merchant, distinguished by his Flemish beaver hat, who thought that above all things England should keep command of the sea; the Frankleyn, or small landed proprietor, a man of unbounded hospitality, a man who had often represented his shire in Parliament. Then follow certain tradesmen, a Haberdasher, a Dyer, and so forth, members each of a trade-gild; then the Cook, good at boiling chickens and preparing marrow-bones, but best of all at making blancmange, which was composed of chicken, sugar (probably made from honey), cream, and flour. We must notice, too, the Shipman. He was a skilful and hardy sailor, and knew all the coast from Gothland in the Baltic to Cape Finisterre in the Atlantic. Often had he met the rovers of the North Sea, and those he captured he threw overboard. Often, too, he had brought wine cargoes from Bordeaux, tapped the casks, and taken a good draught, while the merchant or supercargo who sailed with him was asleep.

There was also a Physician, a man with a great knowledge of drugs, but believing greatly in astrology, and varying his treatment of a patient according to the star which was at the time in the ascendant. He had

made a fortune during the Black Death, but was moderate in his expenditure, and also in eating and drinking: he ate little, but whatever he took was nourishing and digestible. He was very learned in all writers on medical subjects, and he went about dressed in deep red and bluish-grey cloth, lined with silk. The Wife of Bath was a famous maker of cloth, more skilled even than the tradesmen of Ypres and Ghent. This worthy woman, as Chaucer calls her, had had five husbands, and had been on pilgrimage over half the world, to Cologne, Spain, Rome, and Jerusalem. Finally, we may leave this picture of old English life with a glance at the 'Plowman'. He was brother to the 'poor Parson', and, like the parson, a hard worker, simple and upright. He paid all his dues regularly, and would give his labour sometimes for nothing, to help some 'poore wight'. He wore a smock, and rode upon a mare, in debt to no man, holding up his head, a true example of the strength of England.

The reign of Richard II. The tragic reign of Richard II was chosen by Shakespeare as the subject of one of his great historical dramas. The story of this brilliant young king, called to the throne while still a boy, has always proved an attractive chapter in our country's history.

Richard's reign may be divided into three periods. The first is from his accession, in 1377, to 1388, while he was still a minor. The second is from 1389 to 1397, a good period, when Richard was ruling firmly and wisely. The third period is a brief one, from 1397 to 1399, two years of autocratic rule, ending with the revolution which put his cousin Henry IV on the throne.

During the first period the government was carried on

by a council of noblemen, but Richard, who showed great spirit at the Peasants' Revolt in 1381, shortly afterwards began to rely upon friends of his own—Robert de Vere, Earl of Oxford, Sir Simon Burley, Michael de la Pole—and to take an active part in the government. A number of great nobles, under Richard's uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, rose in arms, defeated Richard's friends in a fight near Oxford, and then had them condemned in the 'Merciless Parliament', 1388.

Next year, May 1389, Richard showed the mettle he was made of by suddenly entering the council-room and asking what his age was. Twenty-three years, answered the Duke of Gloucester; to which Richard curtly replied that if this was so he was of age to take a part in the government himself. The resolution of the young monarch won its way, and for eight years Richard, with his gentle and cultivated queen, Anne, Princess of Bohemia, ruled justly and wisely, taking the advice of his council and governing through Parliament. He visited Ireland in 1394, and did much to make the English power safe and agreeable to the Irish. In 1396 he made a much-needed peace with France.

In 1397, however, Richard seems to have changed; he became a despot. A favourite maxim of his was that 'law was contained in the mouth and breast of the king'. In 1398 he induced Parliament to grant him for life the export tax on wool—the chief annual tax of the kingdom; further, it gave over its authority to make laws into the hands of a few members of Parliament who were friends of the King. Richard would thus be able to rule without Parliament, having all the money he required, and making his own laws. Immediately afterwards he banished, without trial, two of the chief

men of the kingdom, his cousin Henry of Lancaster and the Duke of Norfolk. The people, the nobles, and the Church all had cause to complain of Richard's rule. In May 1399 he went for the second time to Ireland, and, while he was away, Henry of Lancaster came from France, to claim the estates of his father, John of Gaunt. When he landed in Yorkshire the nobles of the north brought their men to his side. It became clear that there was little support left in the country for Richard; he could rely upon no one but his bodyguard of Cheshire archers, who swore they would follow him to the death. But when Richard came back from Ireland and landed at Milford Haven, he soon saw that his crown was lost.

He yielded to Henry, and was kept in confinement till February 14, 1400, when he died in Pontefract Castle, having starved himself to death, as some said, or been starved by his jailor.

CHAPTER XII

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR: PART II

The fifteenth century. In the fifteenth century, which now opens, English history shows a marked decline. Till the end of Richard II's reign there had been steady progress, in government, in learning and literature, in the Church, in commerce. In the fifteenth century, however, things are wholly different; the government is in the hands of a few noble families, who fight with each other for the mastery; there is no great literature written; commerce has to get on as best it can under a weak government. This was largely due to the long

French war, which was fought for no high ideals and no just cause.

Henry of Lancaster was recognized by Parliament as king in place of the autocratic Richard.

Henry IV (1397–1413). Henry's reign was much troubled by many risings. The most serious of these arose out of a quarrel between Owen Glendower, an Anglo-Welsh landowner, and his neighbour, Lord Grey. The King took the side of Lord Grey, which caused Glendower to become a rebel. Gradually the whole of Wales rose against the King. During this rebellion the young Prince Henry joined with his father and defeated the Welsh at the battle of Shrewsbury in 1403.

Owen called himself the Prince of Wales, made friends with France and Scotland, and was treated by the Welsh bards as a national hero. He was never captured, but lived among the Welsh hills till his death in 1416.

Prince Henry gradually recovered the Principality. He pardoned Glendower's son, and took him into the royal service.

Henry IV was never happy in his kingdom. He died on March 20, 1413.

Henry V. Henry V was twenty-six years old when he succeeded to the throne. In many ways he was a model king, devoted to his duties, blameless in private life. His face, as it appears in the picture in Queen's College, at Oxford, was pale, delicate, sensitive, with a prominent nose, a high brow, and dignified expression.

He was probably the most popular of all English kings, for he had courage amid danger, prudence and foresight in council, and the touch of genius that marked him off from all other men and gave success to his enterprises.

Yet this serious king has the reputation of having been, before his accession, wild and dissipated, a roystering young blade who wandered about the streets of London at night, and robbed his own tax-gatherers as a practical joke. Shakespeare has made the story of Prince Henry and Falstaff live for ever, for he has put all the jollity of the Elizabethan age into scenes such as that in the Boar's Head Tavern, Eastcheap (*1 Henry IV*, Act II, sc. iv).

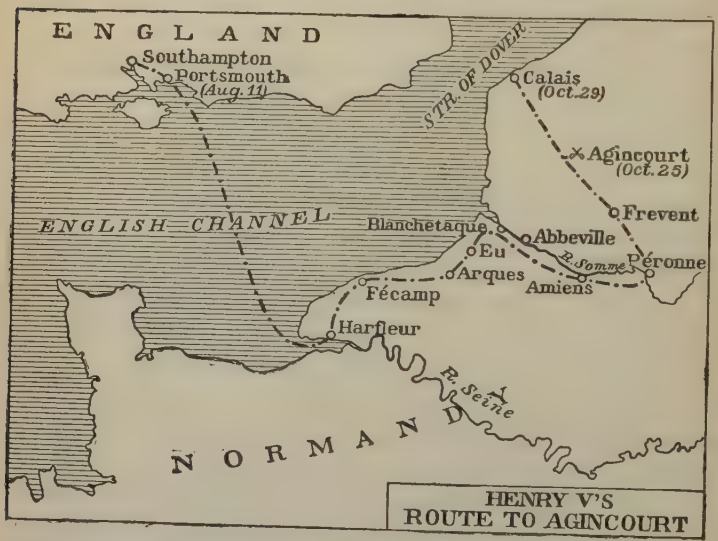
The War with France. His reign is notable for the attempt (which nearly succeeded) to conquer the whole land of France and to add it to his crown. And this stupendous effort was made, and to a large extent actually accomplished, by a man of twenty-nine years of age, the head of a kingdom with little money, and of which the army was never more than 15,000 men.

The renewal of the Hundred Years' War in 1415 was due to Henry's sincere belief that he was the true heir to the crown of France; and he intended, after winning this 'just inheritance', as he called it, to take the combined forces of England and France on crusade against the Infidel; for Henry was deeply religious.

In August 1415 Henry, having collected an army of 15,000 men, of whom about two-thirds were archers, and having hired ships to transport them, sailed from Portsmouth to the mouth of the Seine.

Henry's object in landing there was to begin a campaign for winning the duchy of Normandy. The estuary was commanded by the walled town of Harfleur, about eight miles from where the modern town of Havre is situated. Harfleur held out courageously, and when it at last yielded on September 22, 1415, after a siege of five weeks, about half of Henry's army had wasted away

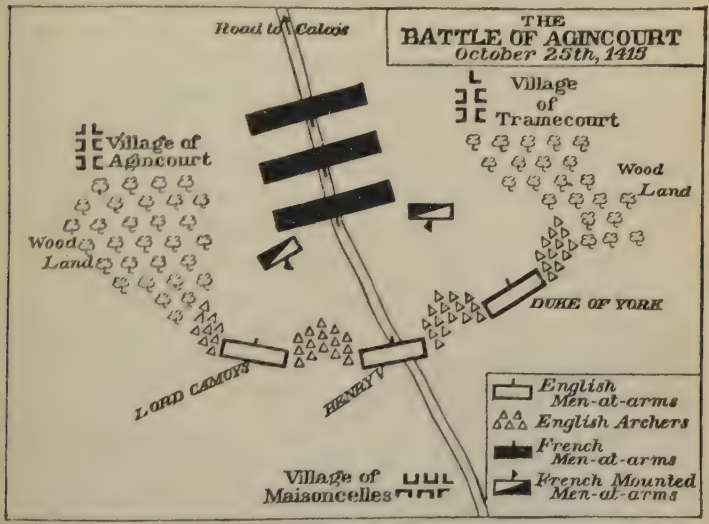
among the marshes before the walls. This resistance of a small town looked like ruining the great scheme of Henry V. How could he expect to go forward and conquer France with about 7,000 fighting-men? Yet he never wavered. There seems to have been no thought of returning to England. When his captains asked him what he meant to do, he replied, 'Straight to Calais'.



On October 9 he began the march, and then ensued the most astonishing feat of the Middle Ages, when a few thousand Englishmen, led by a commander who had never been in the country and who had no map, journeyed through the enemy's kingdom for a distance of about 200 miles, and then overthrew a magnificently equipped French army of about 20,000 to 25,000 men.

Agincourt. The march was interrupted by the French army, which barred the road to Calais at Agincourt.

The English army was tired with marching for a night in the autumn rains through the mud of northern France; it was hungry, too, for supplies had given out in the last few days, the inhabitants having, as far as possible, removed everything from the country-side. Yet Henry seems to have had no thought of accepting the terms—safe return to England on resignation of his claim to the



crown of France—which the French Government offered him. He made his plans for battle with the greatest calmness, and his soldiers seem to have trusted the young man implicitly.

The battle was fought on St. Crispin's Day, October 25, 1415, among ploughed fields between the orchards and gardens of the villages of Agincourt and Tramecourt.

The English had passed the night, drenched with rain, listening to the sounds of merriment that came from the

French lines. These could be distinguished by the watch-fires twinkling among the fields. In the morning King Henry arranged his men in three bodies or battles, called, from the order in which they marched, the vaward, the main battle, and the rearward. But though the three 'battles' marched in this order, they fought (and this became the regular practice of the English) in one line, with archers in large numbers at the extremity of each 'battle'.

The French, filling up the whole space (1,000–2,000 yards broad) between Agincourt and Tramecourt, were also arranged in three battles, but one battle was behind another, and each was mainly composed of heavily armoured knights and men-at-arms, armed with long lances, but dismounted. The first movement was made by the English, but almost at once the French advanced to meet them. Seeing this, King Henry halted his forces, and ordered the archers to fix slantwise in the ground stakes (6 feet long) which they had cut by his orders, so that when the French charged they would dash themselves on the points of the stakes.

The French first tried a charge of cavalry, which was beaten off by the English bowmen. Then the first French battle advanced, and was likewise received with showers of well-directed arrows, which, in spite of the men-at-arms' armour, made havoc in their closely crowded ranks. Owing to their weight, the French could only advance very slowly over the muddy ground, and they were within range of the English long-bows for a distance of well over a hundred yards. When they did reach the English line, they were met, from behind the pointed stakes, by the archers, who fell upon them with hatchets, and by the English men-at-arms. The

French were still too crowded to use their numbers, or even to wield their arms freely. The slaughter was fearful. The first two ' battles ' of the French came up in succession and were broken. The third fled. The English retained possession of the field, with about 6,000 dead Frenchmen upon it, and numerous captives.

The English losses were only about one hundred. Agincourt became, deservedly, the most famous of English battles. It was won against tremendous odds, largely through the personal qualities of the brilliant leader of the English and the spirit with which he inspired his men.

After the battle the army marched to Calais and then took ship to Dover. From Dover to London the march was a triumphal procession all the way.

The battle of Agincourt crippled France, but it did not add a single foot of French territory to the English possessions.

The Conquest of Normandy. In September 1417 Henry V landed his army on the Norman coast, at the little port of Le Touquet. The French made no attempt to meet him in the open field. Henry's plan was to occupy each town of Normandy in a certain order, so that in a few months' time there was a number of them under English garrisons from the sea to the southern frontier of the duchy. Gradually the King worked round with his army and approached the capital, Rouen, from the south. After a long and terrible siege, July 1418 to January 1419, the city was captured. With the fall of Rouen, which at that period is said to have had 100,000 inhabitants, a larger population than that of London, the whole duchy came into the hands of the English. Henry stepped at once into the position of

Duke of Normandy. The ancient laws and customs were maintained; the inhabitants were left undisturbed in their lives and property, and any plunderings or exactions by the English soldiers were severely punished.

The Treaty of Troyes. The crowning success of the English, when Henry V became all but King of France, followed almost immediately (1420). By the Treaty of Troyes, Henry V was declared 'heir of France', and his marriage to Princess Katherine, the French king's daughter, followed. When Charles died, Henry was himself to become king.

After this wonderful success Henry entered Paris, where he spent Christmas, and then returned with Queen Katherine to England, leaving his brother, the Duke of Clarence, as Lieutenant of Normandy in his stead. While Henry was in England, Clarence, with a few thousand men, was caught by some of the Dauphin's men and Scots knights who had come over to help them. In a cleverly fought action they defeated the English, and left Clarence dead on the field. It was the first time that the French had met the English in open battle since Agincourt. The victory put new life into them. Henry V came back with a fine army, but, before he could meet the enemy, death overtook him on August 31, 1422, at the age of thirty-five. Although well-proportioned and athletic, he had never been strong. On campaign he shared the privations of his soldiers, often sleeping on the bare ground and exposing himself to the fever and cold, as well as to the weapons of the enemy. Bad food, fatigue, exposure, prolonged over many months, had brought on his illness. Before his death he quietly made all arrangements for the peaceful succession of the son who had been born to

him in England and whom he was never to see. Then declaring solemnly to his chaplain that he had taken up the sword for a righteous cause, he composed himself for death.

Henry VI, who was less than a year old, succeeded to his father's rights under the Treaty of Troyes. For a time the English cause prospered, under the wise leadership of the young king's uncle, John, Duke of Bedford, the best of Henry V's brothers. The Duke combined the qualities of soldier, general, and statesman. It was his hard task, as Regent of France for Henry VI, to maintain the war (with insufficient supplies of men and money), to administer the country, and to keep peace at home, especially between his brother Humphrey, Duke of Gloucester, and his uncle, Henry Beaufort, Bishop of Winchester.

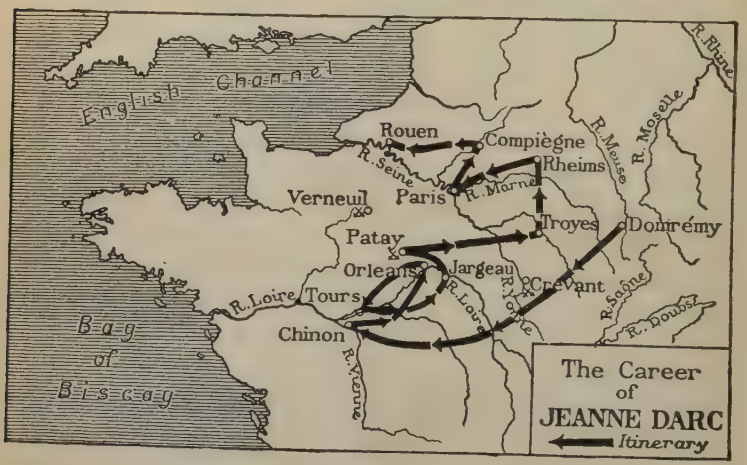
For a time things went well with the English cause. The war dragged on, but the English at home began to lose all interest in it, except that they grumbled at the extra taxation and complained of the loss of life.

The Siege of Orleans. In October 1428 an army, numbering about 5,000 men, was led against the city of Orleans by Thomas Montague, Earl of Salisbury. His forces were too small to surround it completely, but he set to work and built rough fortresses of wood and stone round it, and so tried to close all approaches to the city. The garrison, which was about the same size as the English army, held out stoutly enough, but the struggle revealed a complete lack of ideals in both camps, and seemed to breed nothing but corruption and cruelty.

Jeanne Darc. It was then that Jeanne Darc suddenly appeared, with the freshness of youth and a noble unselfish character. At once the struggle changed, and

it became likely that of the rival forces the French would finally triumph.

Jeanne Darc, as she is properly called, was born about the year 1412 at Domrémy in Lorraine. Her father was a peasant who owned his own land. Jeanne helped with the farm, and spent long hours with the cattle on the hill-side. From there she may have seen the smoke of burning villages, when the English troops passed by.



The imaginative and pious girl heard 'voices' speaking to her, bidding her free France from the English yoke. In 1429, being then about seventeen years old, she went to the nearest town which had a small garrison. The governor, though a commonplace soldier of the hard type of that age, was won over by the simplicity and earnestness of her character so far as to send her to Chinon, where Charles VII held his court. She was admitted to the presence of the King, and again stated her mission. She (a peasant girl who could neither read

nor write) had come as the messenger of God to announce the speedy triumph of the King's cause. The peasant girl was sent with the army that was being collected to try and relieve Orleans.

The relief of Orleans. Jeanne was no general, but there were plenty of skilled captains in her army. To her, 'France' was something beautiful, in comparison with which a man must hold his life as nothing. Patriotism was to become the watchword of the French. With an army inspired by faith in her divine mission, Jeanne approached Orleans in April 1429. On the 29th she entered Orleans unopposed. The end of the siege was in sight. Some hard fighting had still to be done, but the result was almost a foregone conclusion. On May 3, 1429, the English were compelled to burn their works, and raise the siege. Their great effort had failed. The rest of the Hundred Years' War is the story of a steady decline in their power. They felt that they had failed, and, obstinately as they fought, the heart had gone out of them.

The death of Jeanne. Jeanne followed up this victory by destroying nearly half of the English army at Patay. A month later she led Charles VII to Rheims for his coronation, according to her promise. Then once again she took to the field, almost unsupported by the Government. She was captured by a Burgundian force in May 1430. Charles VII made no offer to ransom her, and she was handed over to the English. She was tried by a court of French clergy at Rouen, and burnt as a heretic in the market-place of the city on May 29, 1431. So died the most inspiring figure of the Hundred Years' War, at the early age of eighteen; but her work was done.

Bedford, at the age of 46, died on September 15, 1435. He was the last great man that England produced in the Middle Ages, and he spent his life in a hopeless and useless cause. His brother, Henry V, had laid upon him the burden of the French war, and he carried the burden to the end. The Chronicle of Normandy says he was 'wise, generous, feared, and loved'.

The loss of the French provinces. Gradually province after province in France was lost to us until Calais alone remained in our possession (1453). This was all there was to show for whole generations of warfare. So ended the train of events which Henry V had so brilliantly begun at Agincourt.

CHAPTER XIII

THE WARS OF THE ROSES

The Wars of the Roses. This name has been given to the struggle between two parties of the English nobility, a struggle which went on from 1455 to 1471. The government of the country broke down, and the great nobles, with their retainers behind them, met each other in pitched battles, as in Stephen's reign. The wars were a natural result of the Hundred Years' War in France. A lawless spirit had grown up among the soldiers, who, left unpaid, had learned to defy the law and to prey upon the French peasantry.

When these soldiers returned from the French wars, many of the great nobles gave them a livery or a badge, the wearers thereby agreeing to become 'retainers' of

the giver. These when called upon would sharpen their swords and flock to their lord's standard.

In 1430 a law was passed to prevent any man from voting at the county elections who was not a freeholder

possessing land of the annual value of forty shillings, a considerable sum at that time. Hitherto all freeholders, whatever the value of their land, had been voters. Accordingly the House of Commons came to represent only a small proportion of the people. The House of Lords was even smaller, the usual number

(apart from bishops and abbots) in Henry VI's reign being about forty-nine or fifty. As many of these barons were bitter enemies of each other, and had hundreds of ex-soldiers in their liveries, they first wrangled in Parliament, and soon took to fighting out their grievances in the open field.

Henry VI. The king who had to rule at this difficult time was not fitted for the task. He was an example of meekness to his subjects, would never sit down in church but always stood reverently, kept all the fasts, and was gentle in all his ways. He dressed in dark-grey cloth, with a long gown and hood like a townsman, and with comfortable broad boots or shoes like a countryman. This was in marked contrast to the fashions of the period, which were very affected; well-dressed men wore short tunics and tightly fitting hose that showed the shape of the whole leg, and pointed shoes with such long tips that they had to be tied up with a thong to prevent people from being tripped.

Henry VI's Colleges. Henry tried to do his duty. In 1441 he founded two of the greatest places of education in England—Eton College, near Windsor, and King's College, Cambridge. These colleges rapidly prospered. Eton, with its majestic court and noble chapel, its timbered grounds, and gently flowing river, has educated many of the greatest men in the country.

The Duke of York. Henry VI had married Margaret of Anjou in 1445, but no heir was born to him for the first eight years of his married life, and people began to wonder what would happen when he died. The want of good government was ruining the country. In 1450 the men of Kent rose under an Irishman called Jack Cade, and marched upon London. The royal forces were en-

trapped in a wood near Sevenoaks and defeated. Henry retired to Kenilworth. Cade and his men came to London, and did considerable damage to the city. The rebels demanded a firmer administration of justice, lower taxes, and the employment of the strongest man in the country, the Duke of York.

CIVIL COSTUME.

KNIGHT. Temp. Richard II. GENTLEMAN. Early 15th cent. RICHARD III, when Duke of Gloucester.

The Duke of York was the cousin of Henry VI, and heir to the throne if the King died childless. He had been the King's deputy in France, and had done his work well. In 1445 he had been removed from his post, and had been sent, instead, as 'Deputy' or Lord-Lieutenant to Ireland. He was then thirty-five years old. The King, meanwhile, had been induced by Queen Margaret to lean for advice on Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset, another cousin. Somerset was a grand

nobleman, brave, but without the qualities that make a good ruler. Under him Normandy was lost in 1450, and yet, on returning to England, he became the chief man in the King's Privy Council. From the demand which arose in the country that York, not Somerset, should be given the chief voice in the Government, the Wars of the Roses began.

The demand for the Duke of York. There was a feeling throughout the country that the Duke of York was one of the few strong men left.

On August 10, 1453, the King lost his memory and fell into a state of childishness. On October 13 Queen Margaret gave birth to a son. All chance of the Duke of York peacefully succeeding to the throne on Henry's death was thus taken away; but for the time being York showed no desire to seize the crown by force. As the King could not give any directions whatever, the House of Lords appointed York Protector of the Realm, and all went well for about fifteen months. At the end of that time the King recovered his wits (Christmas 1454). His son was fourteen months old, yet the King had to ask the boy's name; and when the Queen said 'Edward', Henry lifted up his hands and thanked God.

The outbreak of war. As soon as King Henry came to his senses, he dismissed the Duke of York from the Government, and received back the Duke of Somerset. The Queen, who had complete influence over the King, suspected York of planning to exclude her son from the succession to the throne, and would have nothing to do with him. York seems to have felt that not merely his position in the country, but even his life and property were in danger; and so, without waiting for the King to take action, he gathered his supporters together

in Yorkshire and advanced upon London (May 1455). Thus began the Wars of the Roses.

The character of the wars. The Wars of the Roses were civil conflicts, in which the mass of the people took no part. On one side was the King and forty or fifty noble and knightly families; on the other York, also with forty or fifty noble and knightly families. The townspeople, except on one occasion, took no part in the struggle; nor did the country people. The armies consisted of a few hundred nobles and knights, that is to say, well-to-do country gentlemen, with the men who wore their 'livery' and agreed to follow them for wages. In most of the battles the army on each side numbered about 4,000 or 5,000 men. The King's party were known as 'Lancastrians', the Duke's as 'Yorkists'. The name Wars of the Roses was not used till the chroniclers who lived under the Tudors began writing. Actually during the wars the White Rose of York is heard of, but there is no mention of the Red Rose of Lancaster.

FULL PLATE ARMOUR. 'Gothic' suit, about 1445.

Those who fought suffered, as was right, for it was their quarrel, not the nation's. The people, as a whole, stood aside, and owing to the small numbers engaged in the wars, the loss of men and of wealth was very little

felt. Not a single town was plundered. The two parties met on the field and fought. The side which was defeated was scattered; some were killed in battle, some were executed, the rest went into hiding or fled overseas. Till the defeated could gather their forces again for another effort, the country had peace. The wars were thus really a series of detached battles, with months of quietness in between. The party which won the last battle governed the country. The courts sat, and taxes were collected. In the towns trade went on, and in the country districts the ground was tilled and the crops were gathered in. Gradually the noble families lost their chief members, and the people, without taking much active part in the struggle, came more and more to support the man who seemed likely to end it and give peace. This was Edward, eldest son of the Duke of York. Accordingly, the townsmen, notably the Londoners, took to lending him money, and this help, coupled with his own vigour and the following of men whom he commanded, gave him the final victory.

The defeat of the Lancastrian party. The aim of each party was to get or keep possession of London; therefore most of the battles were fought along one or other of the great roads leading to the capital. The first battle, at St. Albans (1455), took place on the Great North Road, which runs from York to London. The Lancastrian forces were dispersed, Somerset killed, the King taken prisoner. Three years of comparative quiet followed, before the Queen, a most determined woman, had gathered support enough to assert the independence of the Crown again. This time she was successful after some fighting in the West of England. Most of the Yorkist nobles had to flee: the Duke of York to Ireland,

where he was perfectly safe upon his estates, and the Earl of Warwick to Calais. Warwick, among other offices, had received from the Crown the post of Captain of Calais, and so now the garrison received him as into a little kingdom of his own, where he was quite safe (1459). Next year he collected sufficient men and ships at Calais to make a landing on the English coast, in Kent; he was welcomed by the citizens of London (1460); but he had to meet the Lancastrian forces on the Great North Road again, at Northampton, where he issued the order to spare the lives of the common soldiers as much as possible, and to fight the gentry to the death. The Yorkists were victorious here, and the King was again captured; but six months later the Queen, who never abandoned a contest, had collected an army in the north of England, and had met the Duke of York at the battle of Wakefield, where he was slain. The victory of Wakefield (1460), however, had little effect, except to show how savage the struggle between the gentry was becoming. The Duke of York's eldest son, Edward, Earl of March, was at the time at the family estates on the Welsh border. Collecting all his men together, he defeated a Lancastrian force at Mortimer's Cross (February 1461), and, marching across England, entered London, while Queen Margaret, who had got as far as St. Albans and won a battle there against the Earl of Warwick, was hesitating what to do. 'If they [the King and Queen]', says the chronicler William of Worcester, 'had come with their army to London, they would have had all things as they wished.' The Queen would not risk it; Edward therefore entered London, and, as his father had been killed, and all possibility of peace between the opposing parties was gone, he took

the final step, and declared himself King. The citizens of London gladly agreed, for they believed that, right or wrong, he was a strong man, who would give peace and order, where King Henry VI had failed to do so. Thus was the Crown added to the White Rose of York (March 1461).

Edward IV. The new King of England was only nineteen years of age. Brought up in a time of civil war, he behaved better than many men whom he might have taken for an example. Two things are told of him in the Wars of the Roses: one, that he always went with his men into the attack, fighting on foot like an ordinary soldier; the other is, that he was in the habit of giving the order to spare the common people, and slay in battle the gentry, with whom the quarrel really lay. As King he has it to his credit that he took steps to keep the country in peace and order—the real cure for the nation's ills; and in addition he encouraged commerce and learning.

Edward IV dated his reign from March 4, 1461, but he had still to fight for his throne. At the end of the same month he won a decisive battle at Towton in Yorkshire, between the rivers Aire and Wharfe. Edward then left the management of the north to Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, 'the last of the barons',[1] who until 1470 supported the Yorkist house as the most likely to bring peace and order to England. Queen Margaret was able to keep forces in the field and in a few castles, partly through money and supplies sent from Scotland and France, and partly through the support of some of the northern gentry, who had not submitted to Edward IV,

[1] See *The Last of the Barons*, novel by Bulwer Lytton, published in 1843.

and whose estates were still untouched by him. By the end of the year 1464, however, the north had been won for King Edward. The last battles were those of Hedgeley Moor and Hexham (1464). Margaret fled to France with her son. Henry VI became a prisoner in the Tower of London.

The Earl of Warwick. Edward IV was still a young man, unused to governing; for years the Earl of Warwick, an able and vigorous soldier, had been one of the greatest upholders of the Yorkist party. Warwick accordingly expected to be the chief man in the kingdom under the Crown. Edward, however, had no sooner come to the throne than he showed himself to be a masterful man. He did not offer to make Warwick a duke; and without consulting the Earl he suddenly (May 1464) married Elizabeth, widow of Sir John Grey. Both her father and her first husband had adhered to the Lancastrian party. Warwick had wished Edward to marry a princess of the royal family of France, a step which would have helped to establish the house of York among the reigning families of Europe. Edward, however, went his own way, chose his own ministers, and showed that he meant to rule the country himself. Warwick was not a man to be left in the cold. There were men who wore his badge—the 'Ragged Staff'—all over the country. He owned immense estates around Salisbury and Warwick, and in Yorkshire. He was richer than the King, and popular with the people. Wherever he went he kept open house. Every day great roasts were laid upon his tables, and any one could come and take away as much meat as could be carried on a long dagger. Such a man could be a serious rival to any king. Yet few people, even in those faithless days, can have

suspected that Warwick would desert to the Lancastrian side, or that Queen Margaret would accept help from the man who had ruined her husband and her son. This, however, was what actually happened. In the spring of 1470 he joined in a rebellion against Edward in Lincolnshire. The rising failed, and Warwick fled overseas, and offered his services to Margaret, who was living at the moment at the court of King Louis XI of France. Warwick, with a force of Lancastrian exiles and hired French soldiers, recrossed the Channel and landed in Devonshire. Edward was taken by surprise. Warwick swiftly seized London when the King was in Yorkshire, and Edward had no resource but to fly the country, and take refuge with his brother-in-law, Duke Charles the Bold of Burgundy.

Barnet and Tewkesbury. For just over six months (October 1470 to April 1471) the Lancastrian Government was restored in England. Queen Margaret stayed on in France; Warwick governed the kingdom; Henry VI, almost unconscious of his surroundings, was brought out of the Tower and placed on the throne, says William of Worcester, 'like a crowned calf'. Edward, however, was only waiting for his opportunity. On March 11 (1471) he set sail from Flushing, with the men who had followed him into exile, and with others provided by Charles the Bold. On the 14th he landed at Ravenspur near Spurn Head in Yorkshire. As he marched southward his forces increased. Warwick came out from London to meet him, but Edward cleverly placed his forces between those of Warwick and the capital. The decisive battle took place at Barnet in Hertfordshire, on Easter Sunday, April 14, 1471, in a dense fog. There were probably only a few thousand

soldiers on either side. Edward dispersed the opposing army; the total losses were about one thousand. Warwick died fighting, and Edward expressed regret for his death.

One more battle had to be fought before England received peace under Edward. On the day of the Battle of Barnet Queen Margaret landed at Weymouth, with a number of Lancastrian knights. She made for the West of England, where Jasper Tudor, Earl of Pembroke, was raising some forces for her. Edward, who always showed great decision and energy when danger was present, marched west immediately. It was a race between his forces and Margaret's, and Edward won. He overtook the Lancastrians before they could cross the Severn into Wales. Outside the historic town of Tewkesbury, within sight of its majestic abbey, the Queen's forces were met and scattered (May 1471). Margaret's son was killed as he was flying from the battle-field; the Queen herself was taken prisoner, but treated honourably, and subsequently permitted to return to France. Less than three weeks after the Battle of Tewkesbury, King Henry VI, who had been put back in the Tower of London, died.

The quiet years of King Edward. For the rest of Edward's reign England was peaceful and prosperous. English foreign trade and shipping increased. The well-to-do merchants were constructing beautiful brick and timbered houses, like Crosby Hall in London.

In 1476 William Caxton, a London merchant, who had traded and lived in Flanders, having learned the new art of printing with movable type, set up a press in Westminster. Edward IV encouraged the great printer, and gave him a pension.

Edward remained popular to the last, a citizen king, cheerful, good-humoured, pleasant to every one; dignified without coldness, a patron of art and learning.

Edward V. Edward IV was succeeded (April 1483) by the elder of his two sons, also called Edward, a boy thirteen years old. The only surviving brother of the late king was Richard, Duke of Gloucester, a good soldier and an able statesman, who was made Protector of the Kingdom, while his nephew, the King, was a minor. Edward V reigned only two months; he died in the Tower of London, along with his brother Richard, on July 15, 1485. It is believed that Richard gave orders that the two princes should be killed.

Richard III. The new king, the last of the Plantagenet house, was an able man, but selfish and ambitious. During Edward IV's lifetime he had served his brother faithfully, and during the Wars of the Roses had led the front ranks of the Yorkist forces. Despite the crooked means by which he came to the throne, he proved to be a good king; he went through the country, on royal 'progress', to hear the complaints of his subjects, a good practice of the mediaeval English kings which lasted till the end of Elizabeth's reign. In his only Parliament, he authorized a statute making benevolences (exactions of money by the King) illegal. He was careful of the defence of the kingdom, insisting on a certain number of bow-staves (for archery) being imported with every barrel of wine. Finally, he kept the navy always in mind, and saw that the ships were in repair; his fleet gained one of the best mediaeval sea-fights of England against the Scots (off the Northumbrian coast) in 1484.

Yet the people felt that he was a usurper. At this time Henry, Earl of Richmond, son of the Lady Margaret

Beaufort and the Welshman, Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, was an exile in France. With the help of the Duke of Brittany and Anne, Regent of France, he got ships and men together, sailed from Harfleur on August 1 and landed with 2,000 men at Milford Haven. He then marched northwards to gather men on the Welsh border. Richard III came to meet him with what forces he could gather. The final battle of the Wars of the Roses took place near Market Bosworth, in Leicestershire, on August 22, 1485. King Richard's men were not all firm in his cause. The great Lancashire family of Stanley helped Henry of Richmond on the field of battle. Richard sought to meet his rival and decide the day in person. His horse was killed under him.

Catesby. Withdraw, my lord ; I'll help you to a horse.
K. Rich. Slave, I have set my life upon a cast,
And I will stand the hazard of the die.
I think there be six Richmonds in the field ;
Five have I slain to-day instead of him.
A horse ! a horse ! my kingdom for a horse !

Richard III, Act v, Sc. iv.

So Richard, says Sir Thomas More, ' fighting manfully in the midst of his enemies, was slain '. His portrait in the National Gallery of London shows a strong intellectual face, with lines of passion upon it, but not the face of a bad man.

CHAPTER XIV

THE RENAISSANCE AND REFORMATION

Modern history. The year 1485, the first of the Tudor Period, is usually considered as the beginning of the Modern History of England. It is not possible to say exactly when the Middle Ages ended and the Modern World began. The Renaissance, the gradual growth of wider and better knowledge, had been going on for a hundred years or more. Yorkist England shows the 'new birth' at work in the country, printing-presses established, art and letters being studied freely.

Towards the end of the fifteenth century, in the reign of Henry VII, first of the Tudor kings, feudalism gradually broke down. The employment of gunpowder did away with the value of armour, thus it was necessary to have soldiers who knew how to shoot. These were hired when necessary, and so gradually took the place of the feudal levy.

The study of Greek. Education in the Middle Ages had depended upon the Latin language and literature. The greatest scholar of the period, Erasmus of Rotterdam, was well known in England, and a friend of Sir Thomas More, the Lord Chancellor, and of John Colet, the Dean of St. Paul's. The Chancellor of Henry VII, Richard Foxe, Bishop of Winchester, was keenly interested in the 'New Learning', as in all sides of education; and after consultation with Erasmus, he founded Corpus Christi College, in the University of Oxford (1516), for the study of Greek, Latin, and

Hebrew. Teachers were brought from Greece itself to give instruction in the Greek tongue; and the works of Aristotle and of Plato, with the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* and the great Attic dramas, became known and studied as models of thought and composition. About the same time (1510) Colet founded the famous 'Grammar-school' of St. Paul's, which has done so much for the instructing

MASTER AND SCHOLAR.

and strengthening of boys' minds through the study of Greek and Latin.

Henry VII. The reign of Henry VII did not witness any great advance in the Renaissance movement. He had to deal with troublesome relics of the unfortunate Roses struggle. He had to win recognition as a lawful king from the monarchs of Europe. In 1492 Christopher Columbus, the Genoese mariner, had discovered the island of Hispaniola, and so showed the way to the American continent. The Spanish and Portuguese began to stretch out towards the New World and to the Indies. In this great movement England as yet took

no share; she was too insular. Henry VII, indeed, was a far-seeing man, and the great possibilities of overseas enterprise did not escape him. He helped to equip an expedition, which sailed from Bristol under John and Sebastian Cabot in 1497, and which

THE WESTERN WORLD as far as it was known at this date.
(Robert Thorne's map, 1527.)

actually reached the mainland of America; but no English settlement followed this for nearly a hundred years.

Although there were no surviving sons of Henry VI, nor of Edward IV, Henry VII had to deal with pretenders to his throne. Henry united the families of Lancaster and York by marrying the Lady Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. Elizabeth was beautiful, gentle, and a good mother, yet Henry never showed much kindness to her.

The Pretenders. The first pretender was Lambert

Simnel. Lambert was merely the handsome son of an Oxford baker, but the plotters pretended he was Edward Plantagenet, Earl of Warwick, the son of Edward IV's brother Clarence. Warwick at the time was actually living in the Tower of London, kept prisoner by Henry VII. Lambert was taken to the English Pale in Ireland, where the house of York was remembered. In Dublin he was accepted as king. From Burgundy soldiers were sent by the Duchess Margaret, sister of Edward IV, to help the Yorkist cause. The rebels then crossed to England, but few people joined them there. At Stoke, near Newark, the King scattered their forces, and most of the leaders were slain (1487). Lambert, whose life was spared, was afterwards employed in the King's kitchen.

The next pretender was Perkin Warbeck. He was a young man of good appearance and easy manners. The Duchess Margaret of Burgundy and Flanders heard of him, and took him to be trained at her court. For she was a bitter opponent of Henry VII, and wished by all means to drive him off the throne of England. When the time was considered ripe, Perkin, dressed like a king and aping the manners of royalty, was sent to Ireland (1492). Very little came of this first attempt, and the next two years were spent in France and Flanders. In 1495 he was back again, with Burgundian men and money, claiming to be Richard of York, the younger of the two princes who were murdered in the Tower of London. Failing again, he went to Scotland, where James IV joined his cause, and led a Scots army into England in his favour (1496). The expedition came to nothing, and Warbeck again became a wanderer, but next year his wealthy friends enabled him to lead

another expedition to Cornwall. Again Henry was ready for him; the Pretender met with no support in the country. He failed in an attempt to seize Exeter, was forced to flee, and took sanctuary at Beaulieu Abbey in Hampshire. Henry VII respected the sanctuary, and Warbeck came out on promise of his life being spared. He was put into the Tower of London, but in 1499 he was caught attempting to escape along with the Earl of Warwick, and both were executed.

Royal marriages. In those days good feeling between nations depended largely upon good feeling between the monarchs. Henry arranged two marriages which brought about important results. One was the marriage of his eldest son Arthur with the Princess Katherine of Aragon, daughter of the King and Queen of Spain (1501). Arthur died in 1502; but the Princess was immediately betrothed to Henry's surviving son, known afterwards as Henry VIII. The other marriage which the far-seeing king arranged was that of his elder daughter Margaret with James IV, the King of Scotland (1503). The marriage of the Rose of England and the Thistle of Scotland was destined, exactly a hundred years later, to bring about the peaceful union of the two countries. Thus the victories of the seventh Henry were the victories of peace. Henry arranged a commercial treaty with Venice, for the exchange of English wool for the 'Malmsey' wine of the Greek islands. It seemed as if for England wars were at an end, and that a period of peaceful intercourse of trade and learning with the cultivated states of Europe was being firmly established.

The Court of Star Chamber. Henry died in 1509 at the age of fifty-three. He had governed England for

twenty-four years in comparative peace after the troubles of the Roses. Many nobles had been killed in that period; others had lost much of their property. The rest were held in check by the King, by means of the Court of Star Chamber, which did very good service in the reign of Henry VII by enforcing the law when the ordinary justices and juries were afraid to do so.

The character of Henry VII. Henry ruled wisely and carefully. Without increasing the taxes he met all the country's expenses, and left a large sum in the treasury when he died.

He had no favourites, was courteous, studious, and understood both Latin and French.

The reign of Henry VIII. The new king, who was eighteen years old at the death of his father, was a young man of great strength and beauty, and highly educated in the learning of the time. He was a good musician, a capital horseman, a fine jouster, a good tennis player, fond of hunting, and could speak in French, Latin, and Spanish.

Certainly he was a strong-minded man, well able to rule his people. Under him England almost alone of all the countries of Europe passed through the great crisis of the Reformation without the agonies of prolonged civil war.

The condition of England. At the opening of Henry VIII's reign there were many dangerous evils to be dealt with.

Sir Thomas More, in his book *Utopia* (meaning 'Nowhere'), describes these evils very clearly.

Owing, first, to the want of handicrafts and manufactures, and secondly, to the maimed and lamed men

returning from the wars being unable to work, and still more to the large number of idle servants kept by the gentry, the country was over-run with thieves and vagabonds.

Another evil was the decay of tillage. After the Black Death and the Peasants' Revolt landlords had frequently, for lack of workers, turned their plough-lands into pasture. At the beginning of the sixteenth century this process was being carried so far that it was said there would soon be no yeomen left on the land.

HENRY VIII.

Wolsey. Among Henry's ministers the most famous was Thomas Wolsey, an accomplished man, with charming manners, who rose rapidly from one position in the Church to another, till in 1514 he became Archbishop of York; for fifteen years, 1514 to 1529, he almost ruled England.

Wolsey came into great prominence in connexion with the war that Henry VIII waged with France between 1511 and 1514, acting in the difficult position of victualler of the army, to the entire satisfaction of the King. The war, in which Henry had been induced to join by his father-in-law Ferdinand of Spain, was useless to England. Henry dreamed of regaining Guienne, but the expedition sent there in 1512 had no success. Next year Henry himself went to France and won a smart action at the Battle of the Spurs near Calais. The Scottish King, James IV, wishing to help the French, though he was married to Henry VIII's sister, led an army over the border. It was met by an English army

under the Earl of Surrey, at Flodden in Northumberland, on September 9, 1513. The battle began about 4 o'clock in the afternoon. By nightfall the Scots had lost their king and the bulk of the army. This terrible defeat left its mark on almost every family, at least in the south of Scotland.

CIVIL COSTUME.

Temp. Hen. VII. | E. OF SURREY. Temp. Hen. VIII. | LORD RUSSELL. Temp. Eliz.

Wolsey's title to statesmanship rests on his having seen the uselessness of the continental wars, which were being waged to increase the dominions of one royal house as against another.

Against such wars Wolsey had the courage to set his face. In 1514 he negotiated peace with France. From this time England only interfered in continental affairs in order to preserve a balance between the power of the various great states, so that none should grow so big as

to control Europe, and to endanger the independence of England herself.

Luther. In 1517 a Friar, Martin Luther, who was a professor in Saxony, attacked the practice of 'indulgences'. By an indulgence, the Pope or his deputies signified to the indulged person the remission of a certain number of days in purgatory—days which in any case would not have come till after death. The granting of indulgences was in the early years of the sixteenth century an abuse; indulgences, in fact, were being openly sold, to raise money for St. Peter's, the magnificent church that Leo X was building in Rome. Luther also cast doubts upon some of the most sacred doctrines of the Catholic religion. He was expelled from the Church, and with him many others felt compelled by conscience to leave the faith of their fathers. Thus began in Germany the movement known as the Reformation.

The Reformation movement in Germany met with little response in England. Henry VIII himself showed no sympathy with it, and wrote in defence of the sacraments of the Church (1521). For this work he received the thanks of Pope Leo X, together with the title of *Fidei Defensor*, which is still borne by the King of England, and is inscribed on his coins.

Henry's Quarrel with the Pope. About 1527 the King desired Pope Clement VII to declare that his marriage with Queen Katherine, his brother's widow, was illegal. This the Pope refused to do. Henry then denied the Pope's authority altogether, and declared himself the Supreme Head of the Church in England.

He then found it easy to get a divorce for himself in the court of the Archbishop of Canterbury (1533). The

authority of the Pope having ceased in England, the Reformation movement gradually grew in strength.

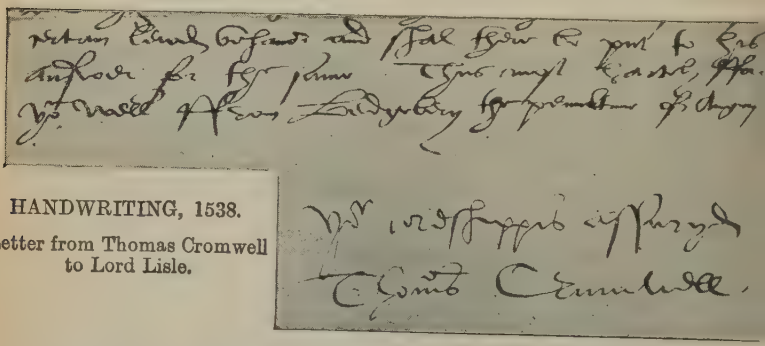
Henry really wanted to marry Anne Boleyn, the daughter of a London merchant and a lady-in-waiting to Queen Katherine. This was why he defied the Pope. In January 1533 the King married Anne Boleyn.

The fall of Wolsey. Until 1529 Wolsey had been Henry's right-hand man, and had managed to satisfy nearly all the King's aims. He failed, however, to obtain from the Pope the divorce of Queen Katherine. This failure lost him Henry's favour, and brought about his fall. He was even accused of high treason. Sir Thomas More succeeded him as Chancellor. Wolsey died in Leicester Abbey on his way from York to London on November 27, 1530.

The Reformation under Henry VIII. All connexion with the Pope was broken off, and the Church in England became an independent national body under the King; its highest ecclesiastical official was the Archbishop of Canterbury. But the Church of England was not 'Protestant', nor did it become so till after Henry's death. There was little opposition aroused against Henry's measures. There were no riots, no destruction of churches. The noble cathedrals and the fine parish churches built in the Middle Ages were preserved, and the impressive and dignified ritual of the Roman Church was to a large extent retained. England was fortunate in receiving its Reformation by easy stages, so that most of what was good in the old system was preserved, and the destruction and misery which accompanied the religious wars on the Continent were avoided.

The monasteries. The ordinary parish priests, on the

whole, took easily to the new system of Church government. The majority of the bishops, led by Archbishop Cranmer, also showed themselves obedient to the King. The monasteries, however, were more attached to the ancient ways. They held a great deal of land, but they did not put this to the best use for the benefit of the country. The monks did not take advantage of their great opportunities to educate the people. When therefore the monasteries were attacked by the Government of



HANDWRITING, 1538.
Letter from Thomas Cromwell to Lord Lisle.

Henry VIII, they had little to say for themselves; if few grave charges could be proved against them as a whole, yet little could be said in their favour.

It was on account of their loyalty to the Pope, and on account of their property, that Henry VIII and his minister Thomas Cromwell resolved to abolish them. In 1536, among the last Acts of the 'Reformation Parliament', a bill was introduced and passed to dissolve all monasteries of which the property was valued at less than £200 a year. The men of the northern counties resented this, and rose in a rebellion known as the Pilgrimage of Grace, but with some difficulty were

repressed. Then the King proceeded on his way. One by one, all the remaining monasteries were dissolved and their property taken for the use of the Crown.

Effects of the dissolution of the monasteries. The number of monks at this time numbered something between four thousand and eight thousand. They received a certain amount of consideration from the Government. Those under twenty-four years of age were released from the vows which they had taken on becoming monks; most of the rest were pensioned with sums which, at the present value of money, would be from £25 to upwards of £1,000 per annum. Only the abbots of the greatest monasteries which surrendered themselves to the King received the large pensions. The nuns were worse treated than the monks, being simply given a gown from the King, and left to find work or to live upon charity. The wealth obtained from the monastic lands was used in three different ways: some went into the royal treasury, and was used in building forts on the coast; some was used in endowing six new bishopries—Westminster (which only lasted till 1550), Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol, Chester, Gloucester; the rest of the monastic property was either given to gentlemen as a reward for services, or sold. The nobles and gentry who thus received the monastic lands acquired them quite honestly, although sometimes on rather easy terms. On the whole they were admirable landlords, and did much for the great agricultural industry of England. During the abolition of the monasteries there must have been many tragedies of real life enacted, when old men, compelled to quit the peaceful walls of their abbey, looked their last upon the storied windows, the mouldings, and the tracery of the

chapel in which they so long had worshipped, and which was soon to be in ruins.

In 1540, Archbishop Cranmer induced the King to order that a translation of the Bible should be placed in every church, and that any man might read it there at his pleasure. Thus the Scriptures were opened to all who could read.

The last years of Henry VIII. The last fifteen years of Henry VIII were in the nature of a reign of terror; for all who opposed the will of the relentless King sooner or later lost their heads. Among his earliest victims were Bishop Fisher of Rochester and Sir Thomas More, who refused the oath which they were bound to take under the Act of Succession (1534). By this Act the children of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn had been declared heirs to the throne, instead of Mary, the child of Henry and the divorced Katherine. Fisher and More died on the scaffold, and their heads were placed on London Bridge (1535).

The dark days drew to a close. Katherine of Aragon died in 1536, having resided since the divorce on one of the royal manors, with a small pension from the King. Anne Boleyn, Henry's second wife, was executed on a charge of unfaithfulness to the King in the same year. His next wife, Jane Seymour, died shortly after giving birth to Prince Edward. Thomas Cromwell next proposed an alliance with a Lutheran prince of Germany; and Anne, daughter of Duke William of Cleves, was brought over to be married to the King. But Henry, who before she came to England had only seen a portrait of the lady, immediately took a dislike to her; she was accordingly divorced, and left to pass the rest of her life at Richmond Palace with a pension of £3,000 per annum

—a large sum for those days (1540). Cromwell, who had suggested the marriage, paid for the mistake with his life, being executed in July on a charge of treason. On the same day on which Cromwell was executed the King married Katharine Howard, a niece of the Duke of Norfolk. Henry was now 50 years old ; Katharine was probably about 20. She was executed in 1541, on a charge of immoral conduct. In 1543 Henry married Katharine Parr, the widow of Lord Latimer. Henry did not live long enough to make her another example of his cruelty. A great eater, he had become so corpulent that he could not stand upright without support. He died on January 28, 1547. Henry was a ferocious tyrant, but he was interested in learning and literature, and to him England owes the magnificent foundation of Trinity College in Cambridge ; and he was a wise statesman, who piloted the country through a stormy period.

CHAPTER XV

THE COMPLETION OF THE REFORMATION

Edward VI. The new king was only ten years old when his father died. His mother, Jane Seymour, had died shortly after his birth, and he had been brought up, under the influence of the Seymour family, in the Reformed opinions. He was a well-educated boy, serious beyond his years, and from the first year of his reign took his seat at the Council table and gave his opinion on matters of state. He was too young, however, to have an independent judgement, and was guided by the men about him, who were all determined to advance the Reform Movement.

Scotland. Young King Edward was under the guardianship of his uncle, the Duke of Somerset. Somerset was a man of large ideas, and of a noble mind. At the same time he was fond of wealth and greedy of power, while his plans for the good of the kingdom were generally put into execution too hastily. It was so with Scotland. He proposed that King Edward and Mary, the infant Queen of Scotland, should be married, and that Scotland and England should be united in government: matters, however, did not move quickly enough; the Roman Catholic party, the bulk of the people of Scotland, made difficulties. In the autumn of 1547 Somerset invaded Scotland with twenty thousand English, Spanish, Italian, and also, it is said, Greek mercenaries. The Scots army was met, and, with the help of gunfire from some English ships in the bay, defeated at Pinkie Cleugh, on the coast, about seven miles east of Edinburgh. It was the worst possible way to set about persuading the Scots to a union. The young queen was immediately shipped off from Dumbarton, in the west of Scotland, to France; she was brought up at the French court as a strict Catholic; in course of time she married the French king, Francis II; and she returned to Scotland in 1561, to become the enemy of the Reformation and of England.

The First Prayer Book of Edward VI. Somerset was an ardent Reformer, as indeed was Cranmer. They now took measures to do away with such religious foundations as had escaped under Henry VIII. The money thus gained was used for starting those grammar schools which still bear the name of King Edward VI. In 1549 the First Prayer Book was written, a complete book of prayer and worship for the Church services, in the

English tongue. Before this most of the service was given in Latin. Next year the new Prayer Book was authorized by Act of Parliament. This book was to a large extent a translation (by Cranmer) of the prayers and forms of worship which had been used in England, in the Latin tongue, for over a thousand years. These prayers, rendered into dignified and solemn English, show the Reformed position of the Church of England. In doctrine the new Prayer Book was not so 'Protestant' as to prevent those who were attached to the old faith from coming to the Church services.

Ket's Rebellion. Shortly after the issue of the First Prayer Book, a rebellion broke out in Norfolk, under one Ket, a local landowner, who had made a fortune in the tanning trade. The rebels complained of the number of new nobles who had been created since the Dissolution of the Monasteries, and of the amount of land which they had 'enclosed'. One result of 'enclosing' was that the land maintained fewer small farmers than before, as Bishop Hugh Latimer pointed out to Edward VI in a sermon preached before the King in March 1549.

'My father was a yeoman, and had no lands of his own, only he had a farm of three or four pound by year at the uttermost, and hereupon he tilled so much as kept half a dozen men. He had walk for a hundred sheep; and my mother milked thirty kine. He was able, and did find the King a harness, with himself and his horse, while he came to the place that he should receive the King's wages. I can remember that I buckled his harness when he went into Blackheath field.[1] He kept me to school, or else I had not been able to have preached before the King's majesty now. He married my sisters with five pound, or twenty nobles apiece; so that he

[1] When the Cornish rebels were defeated, in 1497.

brought them up in godliness and fear of God. He kept hospitality for his poor neighbours, and some alms he gave to the poor. And all this he did of the said farm, where he that now hath it payeth sixteen pound by year, or more, and is not able to do anything for his prince, for himself, nor for his children, or give a cup of drink to the poor.'

Ket's rebellion was put down by John Dudley, Earl of Warwick. At the same time there had been risings in Cornwall and Devonshire against the new Prayer Book. The risings sealed Somerset's fate. He had shown weakness during the rebellion. He had even shown sympathy with the complaints of the rebels against enclosures. He was charged with high treason and beheaded in 1552.

Dudley now held chief power over the kingdom, and showed himself no better than others in those grasping times, by getting himself made Duke of Northumberland. Under his authority in 1552 the second Prayer Book of Edward VI was issued. This stated the Protestant position quite clearly.

Edward had never been strong, and much early study and application to business had further weakened his overstrung body. In 1552 he had measles, and afterwards small-pox. Then a bad cough set in, which may have denoted the wasting disease of consumption. He died on July 6, 1553, at the age of 16. He seems to have been a good, serious youth, anxious to do his duty, overburdened with the cares of his station.

Queen Mary. Mary, the daughter of Henry VIII and Katherine of Aragon, was a woman of plain features and a weak constitution. She had, however, like all the Tudor monarchs, a resolute spirit and staunch courage. On her accession to the throne she had to face a serious

rebellion. Before the death of Edward VI the ambitious Northumberland had married his fourth son, Guildford Dudley, to Lady Jane Grey, the granddaughter of Henry VIII's sister Mary. When Edward died, Jane Grey was proclaimed sovereign; she had been brought up in the reformed faith, to which she was attached, and it was hoped that all the reformed part of the population would support her. Mary's determined conduct, however, prevented this. She at once raised a party in Norfolk, where the Catholic family of Howard was strong, and refused to treat with Northumberland. The small army he had hired saw that the feeling of the country was against him. His men fell away; he attempted to make terms with Mary, but though very submissive, he was treated as he deserved, being beheaded for treason.

The rest of Mary's reign is the story of her attempt to bring England back to the Roman Catholic obedience. The only friends she had in the time of her disfavour had been strong Catholics; her advisers were priests, who carefully impressed her with the idea that she was destined to bring back erring England to the bosom of Holy Church. Nervous, excitable, sickly, she brooded upon this idea until it became a perfect passion. As her life drew to a close she became wretched, and cruel. She knew that she was loved neither by her husband, Philip of Spain, nor by her people. With no home life, no children to cheer and occupy her moments, she gave herself over to the religion that only brought her fresh troubles.

Mary's first Parliament passed a bill restoring the ancient form of worship in Latin in place of the English Bible and Prayer Book which had been in use in Edward VI's reign.

Soon after Mary's accession the Emperor Charles V had suggested that she should marry his son Philip. Mary, who kept in mind all her life her Spanish mother's misfortunes, welcomed the notion of the Spanish marriage, and persuaded herself of being in love with Philip before she ever saw him. The country, however, disliked the idea. Against the proposed marriage, and against the restoration of Catholic worship, a rebellion arose in Kent, under Sir Thomas Wyatt (January–February 1554). The rebels advanced to the capital,

PHILIP II AND MARY.

failed to take London Bridge, obtained a crossing at Kingston, and fought their way through London to Ludgate Hill, before they were finally defeated and dispersed. Mary had been urged to flee by her Council, but had refused. Again, as in the rebellion of the Duke of Northumberland, her resolution triumphed. The rebels were defeated. Wyatt himself was captured and beheaded. Lady Jane Grey and her husband Guildford Dudley, who had been prisoner in the Tower since the rebellion of 1553, suffered the death penalty also.

The defeat of the rebellion of Wyatt seemed to Mary like a sign from God that her religious policy was

approved in heaven. It had another bad effect in arousing her passion and stifling her feelings of pity. For she had set her heart upon the marriage with Philip of Spain; and the rebellion, which was largely directed against the marriage, had nearly lost her this husband.

The persecutions. Then followed three miserable years. Mary proceeded to set up courts to try those who held reformed opinions. Two hundred and seventy-seven persons suffered the terrible death of burning. Three of the most notable and beloved of the English clergy were publicly burned in the open space in front of Balliol College, outside the north wall of Oxford (1555–6). These were the gentle Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury; the learned Ridley, Bishop of London, and the eloquent, though somewhat rough-tongued reformer, Latimer, Bishop of Worcester. Latimer's words to Ridley when they were being tied to the fearful stake (Oct. 16, 1555) have come down to us as a cheerful message from that time of blood and horror:

'Be of good comfort, Master Ridley. Play the man: we shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out.'

Mary died on November 17, 1558. It was reported by the French ambassador that she said, if her body was opened after death, Calais would be found engraven on her heart.

Queen Elizabeth. Elizabeth was the daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn. She was almost an ideal ruler for the English. For they objected to the Pope's supremacy, to the great power of the priesthood, and to the use of a strange tongue in their religious services.

Under Elizabeth the Church of England, as it still exists, was established, owning the King, not the Pope, as its supreme head, praying and preaching in English, with an educated, married clergy living closely in touch with the people.

The establishing of the Church of England. A Book

CIVIL COSTUME IN ELIZABETH'S REIGN.
Left to right from high to low degree.

of Common Prayer was issued at the beginning of Elizabeth's reign, and its use was commanded in every church in the land. The Act of Uniformity was passed making it law that all clergy should conduct their services according to the Prayer Book ; it also put upon all the people in the country the duty of going to church every Sunday.

They were told they must abide in church orderly and

soberly during the time of Common Prayer and Preaching.

The punishment for staying away was a fine of twelve pence.

The Reformation in Scotland. While Elizabeth was settling the Church question in England, a Reformation movement had been going on in Scotland. The Scottish Reformation differed from the English in this: in England the Reform, at the beginning, was imposed by the Crown upon the people; in Scotland, it was imposed by the people upon the Crown.

John Knox, a reformer who had been sent away to work as a galley slave in France, and who later had been living at Geneva where he followed John Calvin, returned to Scotland in 1559. His eloquence, his earnestness, his powerful personality, soon won over his fellow countrymen. Calvinism spread rapidly, until in 1568 the Roman Catholic system was rooted out of Scotland, and Presbyterianism reigned supreme.

CHAPTER XVI

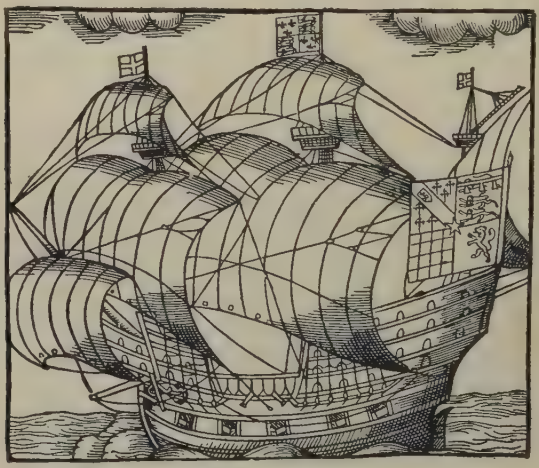
THE EXPANSION OF ENGLAND

The New World. The religious persecutions of Mary's reign seem to have left the hardy men of the south coast dissatisfied with life in England. They began to look westwards, over the Atlantic Ocean, for opportunities to increase their trade. Sixty years before this time the Genoese sailor Columbus had shown the way.

The Spaniards, however, had found new countries for their king in America, while the Portuguese had

done similarly in India. The English had not yet begun to colonize distant lands. They traded overseas, making long voyages, and then returned home.

Raleigh. There was one man who dreamed of an England on the other side of the Atlantic. This was Walter Raleigh, the son of a Devonshire squire. He was born in 1552, near Budleigh Salterton, and went to one of



THE 'PRIMROSE' OF LONDON, 1585.

the local grammar schools. There he learned to be a good scholar, though to the end of his life he spoke English with the accent of a Devonshire countryman. When he was fourteen he went for three years to Oriel College, and at the age of seventeen he went to France and fought, as many other Elizabethans did, for the Huguenots; altogether he saw five years' continuous service in the Religious Wars.

A few years later (1578), after reading law for some time in London, he took an expedition with his half-

brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, to the Azores, against the Spanish, and in 1580 he was captain of a company of foot in the English forces in Ireland. Next year,

SIR WALTER RALEIGH. From the Duke of Rutland's Miniature.

being sent with dispatches to England, he went to the court at Greenwich, and there one day, as the Queen was coming from her barge, he spread his fine plush cloak in the mud for her to tread on. The Queen was attracted by the handsome, bright-eyed young man; and he, it

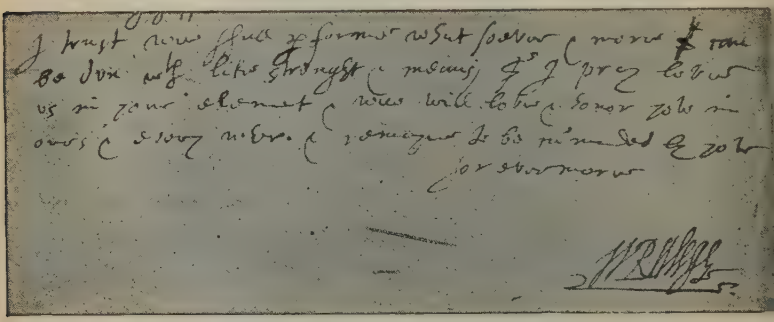
seems, fell in love with the Queen. The story is told that he scratched on a window of Greenwich Palace :

Fain would I climb, yet fear I to fall ;

and the Queen (who had an equally ready wit), when she saw it, scratched an answering verse :

If thy heart fail thee, climb not at all.

It was not at Court that Raleigh's title to fame was to be won, though he remained a favourite there till 1592,



HANDWRITING, 1597. Letter of Raleigh to Cecil.

when he lost the Queen's favour by marrying one of her maids of honour, Elizabeth Throgmorton.

Between his coming to court, in 1581, and the death of Queen Elizabeth, his chief activities (when he was not writing poetry, philosophy, or history) were employed in the Irish wars, and in expeditions against the Spaniards. It was in 1585 that he started his great colonizing project, when he fitted out an expedition to sail to America, and to make a permanent settlement there under the English flag. He put his own money into this venture, and got all his friends to subscribe. The expedition sailed under his cousin Richard Grenville,

and planted the first English settlement in America—the colony of Roanoke in Virginia. The colonists were starved out in a year; Raleigh sent two more expeditions, which failed likewise, with considerable loss of life. They brought back, however, two things to England—the tobacco plant, which Raleigh was the first Englishman to smoke, and the potato. The rest of the story of this most remarkable man belongs to the reign of James I.

Sir John Hawkins. It was not colonization, however, but the miserable trade in negro slaves that first took the Elizabethan sailors to the Spanish Main. In 1562 John Hawkins, of Plymouth, a sailor who, like his father, had been engaged in trade with Spain, resolved to make a more distant enterprise. Partly at his own expense, and with the help of other daring spirits, he fitted out a squadron of ships, which sailed, with the crews armed and disciplined, like a naval squadron, to Africa and then to the West Indies.

On the Guinea Coast Hawkins got 300 negroes, helpless human beings, torn from such homes as they had by the chiefs who sold them to the adventurers, or by the adventurers themselves. With this human cargo, and with the general merchandise they had brought from England, the adventurers sailed to Hispaniola and traded with the Spanish settlers. Under Spanish law foreigners were not allowed to trade with Spanish colonies; but the settlers wanted the slaves for their sugar plantations, and the fierce adventurers were too well armed to care about the Spanish officials.

Hawkins's second voyage. The second expedition of Hawkins took place in four ships in 1564. This time the 'General's' ship was a fair size—700 tons burden; the

rest varied in dimensions, the smallest being the size of a modern fishing smack.

After taking their human cargo from West Africa they sailed to the Spanish Main (the Mainland of Central and South America), where they saw many strange sights, among others the crocodile. Hakluyt, the historian of Elizabethan voyages, writes :

'In this river we saw many crocodiles of sundry bignesses, but some as big as a boat, with four feet, a long broad mouth, and a long tail ; whose skin is so hard that a sword will not pierce it. His nature is to live out of the water, as a frog doth ; but he is a great devourer, and spareth neither fish, which is his common food, nor beasts, nor men, if he take them, as the proof thereof was known by a negro, who, as he was filling water in the river, was by one of them carried clean away and never seen after. His nature is ever when he would have his prey, to cry and sob like a Christian body, to provoke them to come to him, and then he snatcheth at them.'

On the way home, coasting by way of Florida, the adventurers became acquainted with tobacco :

'The Floridians, when they travel, have a kind of herb dried, who, with a cane and an earthen cup in the end, with fire and the dried herbs put together, do suck thorough the cane the smoke thereof, which smoke satisfieth their hunger, and therewith they live four or five days without meat or drink.'

The third voyage of Hawkins, in 1567, ended in a fight off St. Juan d'Ulloa. The Spanish viceroy of New Spain (or Mexico) appeared with a fleet of twelve ships, against Hawkins's six, to stop the smuggling trade. A regular sea-battle ensued ; Hawkins lost four ships ; the fifth foundered at sea ; only one, the *Judith*, of 50 tons

burden, with Hawkins and Francis Drake on board, returned to Plymouth.

Frobisher and the North-west Passage. Martin Frobisher, a Yorkshire sailor, who had long dreamed of finding a way to China round North America, was the first Englishman to explore the polar regions. In 1576 the Earl of Warwick helped him with money to fit out three ships, one a pinnace of 10 tons, the other two barks of 20 and 25 tons. The pinnace went down in a storm; the 25-ton bark gave up and sailed home, but Frobisher in his little *Gabriel* of 20 tons sailed on to Greenland, and found a strait which he thought lay between America and Asia. He succeeded in sailing back to England. Five of his men had to be left behind, taken prisoners by the Esquimaux. These men later managed to build a rough boat from some timber left by Frobisher, and in this frail craft they set out over the unknown seas, past mountains of ice, for England. They were never heard of more.

FROBISHER.

Frobisher made two more voyages to the northern coast of Canada and to Greenland. On the third voyage (1578) he drifted through the ice into the straits now

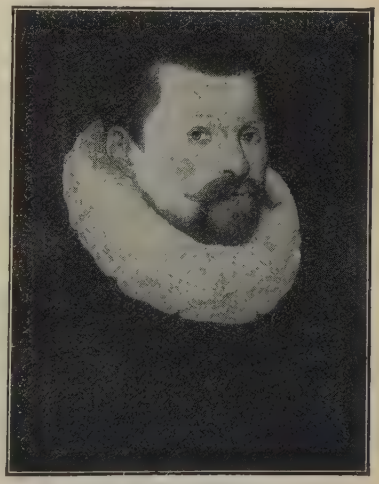
known as Hudson's Straits. On this voyage he had fifteen ships, one of 200 tons burden, the others of various smaller sizes; fearful dangers and difficulties were encountered with ice.

The north-west passage by the frozen Arctic Ocean has baffled all adventurers. The actual results of Frobisher's enterprise (apart from the discovery of some mineral districts) was to train a most hardy school of sailors whose traditions have been carried on by the whaling crews of a later day.

Francis Drake. The glorious Pacific Ocean with its rich and romantic shores was till fifteen years after the accession of Elizabeth known only to Spaniards. No Englishman had penetrated there. In 1573 Francis Drake, who was born in Tavistock, and was brought up in Rye, and who had served under Hawkins, took an expedition to the West Indies. He landed on the Isthmus of Panama, and penetrated some distance inland. He was conducted to a high ridge on which was a huge tree, with steps cut in it. Drake climbed up, and from this lofty perch saw in the distance the shining waters of the Pacific. His resources, however, did not enable him to go farther that year. One of his captains, John Oxenham, who had likewise climbed the giant tree of Panama, resolved to be the first Englishman to sail on the Pacific. In 1575 he sailed for Panama, landed with his men on the Isthmus, crossed it on foot, cut some timber and built a rough pinnace. With this small craft he sailed upon the heaving waters of the mysterious ocean. Two Spanish galleons, laden with silver and gold, sailing from Mexico to Peru, fell a prey to the daring and unexpected freebooter. Pleased with his success, Oxenham delayed returning to Panama, and then the enemy proved too

strong. He was captured by the ships of the Spanish viceroy, and hanged as a pirate at Lima in Peru.

The famous voyage of Sir Francis Drake. Drake's wonderful expedition, which proved the weakness of the vast Spanish Empire, and declared the great oceans open to the English, started in 1577. Queen Elizabeth, the Earl of Leicester, and other notable people, took shares in the adventure, the object of which was plunder from the Spanish colonies. In 1570 Pope Pius V had outlawed Elizabeth, and declared that her subjects no longer need obey her. Spain was the strong support of the Pope; and although open war did not yet exist between Spain and England, in practice war went on at sea.

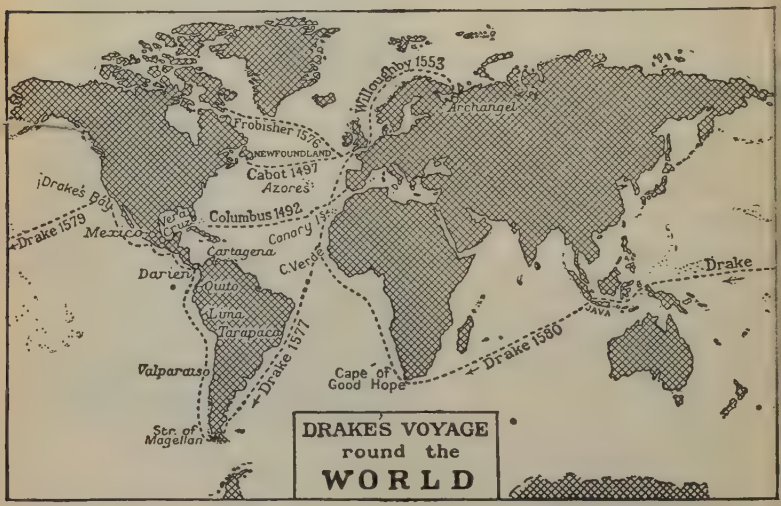


FRANCIS DRAKE.

'The 15. day of November, in the year of our Lord 1577 Master *Francis Drake*, with a fleet of five ships and barks, and to the number of 164 men, gentlemen and sailors, departed from *Plymouth* giving out his pretended voyage for *Alexandria* (Hakluyt).'

Drake was at this time aged 37. His ships consisted of the *Pelican*, 120 tons, the *Elizabeth*, 80 tons, the *Swan*, 50 tons, the *Marigold*, 20 tons. The sailors had the mariner's compass to steer by, but no charts.

The squadron, although really a private enterprise, sailed under strict discipline. Drake bore the title of general with his crews. The voyage was made by way of Cape Verde, across the Atlantic to South America. Drake's plan was to get to the Pacific without the knowledge of the Spaniards, by the route no Englishman had yet followed, round South America, through the Strait of Magellan. Some prizes were made of Spanish



ships on the way across the Atlantic. Coasting along by Patagonia, Drake was able to get fresh water and some provisions from the shore. On one occasion the natives came and danced in a friendly fashion before the crews; and Drake, turning his back to them, suddenly found his cap seized off his head by a native, who immediately ran away. The cap was a round felt one, with a high brim and a gold band; the native got the cap and gave

the band to ' his fellow '. Drake, who was a most severe and dignified man, does not seem to have resented the incident.

At Port St. Julian, on the Patagonian coast, it was discovered that a mutiny among some of his men was being arranged by Master Thomas Doughty, his second in command.

' Which when our General saw, although his private affection to Master *Doughty* as he then in the presence of us all sacredly protested, was great, yet the care he had of the state of the voyage, of the expectation of her Majesty, and of the honour of his country, did more touch him, as indeed it ought, than the private respect of one man. So that the cause being throughly heard, and all things done in good order as near as might be to the course of our laws in *England*, it was concluded that Master *Doughty* should receive punishment according to the quality of the offence. And he, seeing no remedy but patience for himself, desired before his death to receive the communion, which he did at the hands of Master *Fletcher*, our minister, and our General himself accompanied him in that holy action; which being done, and the place of execution made ready, he having embraced our General and taken his leave of all the company, with prayers for the Queen's Majesty and our realm, in quiet sort laid his head to the block, where he ended his life.'

On August 21, 1578, the squadron, reduced to three (for Drake had burned the *Swan*), entered the Strait of Magellan. At this point of the voyage, Drake changed the name of the *Pelican* to the *Golden Hind*. In the Strait great difficulties were encountered.

'The land on both sides is very huge and mountainous; the lower mountains whereof, although they be

monstrous and wonderful to look upon for their height, yet there are others which in height exceed them in a strange manner, reaching themselves above their fellows so high that between them did appear three regions of clouds. These mountains are covered with snow. At both the southerly and easterly parts of the Strait there are islands among which the sea hath his indraught into the Straits, even as it hath in the main entrance of the frete. This Strait is extreme cold, with frost and snow continually; the trees seem to stoop with the burden of the weather, and yet are green continually, and many good and sweet herbs do very plentifully grow and increase under them. The breadth of the Strait is in some places a league, in some places two leagues and three leagues, and in some other four leagues; but the narrowest place hath a league over.'

By September 6 the squadron was through the Strait, but on the 7th a storm blew the ships 200 leagues out of their course, and the *Marigold* went down with all hands. The *Elizabeth* returned to England, and the *Golden Hind* sailed up the coast of Chile. Entering the port of Valparaiso Drake found a Spanish ship there, the hatches of which he managed to batten down on the top of the few men who were in it. Then Drake and his men entered the town of Santiago near by, which only consisted of nine households. The inhabitants fled, and the English rifled it, and took the 'silver chalice, two cruets, and one altar-cloth' from the church. The ship in Valparaiso harbour yielded a large store of gold and silver. At Coquimbo, where the English landed, they had a skirmish with 500 Spanish soldiers, but only lost one man. At Tarapaca:

'We found by the sea-side a Spaniard lying asleep who had lying by him thirteen bars of silver, which

weighed 4,000 ducats Spanish. We took the silver and left the man. Not far from hence, going on land for fresh water we met a Spaniard and an Indian boy driving eight *llamas* or sheep of Peru, which are as big as asses ; every of which sheep had on his back two bags of leather, each bag containing 50 lb. weight of fine silver. So that, bringing both the sheep and their burthen to the ships, we found in all the bags eight hundred weight of silver.'

At Lima, where Drake boldly sailed into the harbour, there were twelve Spanish ships, which the English seized and rifled, getting good store of silver and of merchandise. Drake then cut the cables of these ships, and sailed away to intercept a treasure ship, which he heard had left shortly before. The ship was overtaken, part, not all, of its silver seized, and the ship and crew then allowed to pursue their own way. It was the custom of Drake to let go all the Spanish ships, after he had overhauled them and taken his choice of the cargo.

By this time the year 1578 had passed. In order to escape a Spanish squadron Drake decided to sail west, the way no Englishman had ever gone, across to the Indian Ocean, and so back to England by the Cape of Good Hope.

Accordingly, the *Golden Hind* sailed up the Californian coast to some place near where is now San Francisco. The English flag was hoisted at this point, as a sign of possession. Then the westward cruise began. The adventure had been an astonishing success, thanks to the skill and resolution of the general, and to the wonderful courage and endurance of the sailors. Drake's behaviour on board his ship was described by a Spaniard who was taken in one of the prizes.

'The English general . . . is about thirty-five years of age, of small size, with a reddish beard, and is one of the greatest sailors that exist, both from his skill and from his power of commanding. His ship . . . sails well, and has an hundred men, all in the prime of life and as well trained for war as if they were old soldiers of Italy. . . . He treats them with affection and they him with respect. He has with him nine or ten gentlemen . . . who form his council, . . . but he is not bound by their advice, though he may be guided by it. He has no privacy: these of whom I speak all dine at his table. . . . He has all possible luxuries, even to perfumes, many of which he told me were given him by the Queen. None of these gentlemen sits down or puts on his hat in his presence without repeated permission.'

The Spaniard concludes his description by saying that Drake dined and supped to the music of violins, and that he had in his ship two draughtsmen, who so carefully mapped the coast that any one could follow it.

The voyage across the Pacific was safely accomplished, and on September 26, 1580, the *Golden Hind*, after a voyage of just under three years, sailed into Plymouth Sound. Queen Elizabeth, who had given advice and encouragement, and had ventured a good deal of her money in the enterprise, visited the ship, and knighted Drake upon his own quarter-deck. The wonderful vessel, which was no bigger than a small coaster, must have suffered from the tremendous voyage. It never sailed again, but was broken up a few years later. A piece of its timber, made into a chair, may still be seen in the Bodleian Library, at Oxford.

Other voyages. Drake's 'Famous Voyage' of 1577–80 opened up the New World to English seamen. In 1585

he took a 'Great Armada', 25 vessels, with 2,300 men, to attack the Spanish Main. It was a Company adventure, the queen and the great men taking shares: the plunder, when brought back, was to be divided; one-third as prize-money among the officers and crews, two-thirds among those who had provided the capital. The West Indian colonies of Spain were attacked, and treasure secured, but fever prevented the attack which Drake had planned on the Isthmus of Panama.

ELIZABETH.

Another seaman, Humphrey Gilbert, half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh, sailed for Newfoundland in 1583. This island, since John Cabot discovered it in 1497, had become a great fishing centre for Spanish, French, and English fishermen. Gilbert desired to make Newfoundland an English colony, so that land and livelihood could be found for the many Englishmen who, in spite of their strength and energy, seemed unable to live at home, and who were discontented with a humdrum life.

Gilbert received from Queen Elizabeth a grant of whatever lands he might discover in North America, and in June 1583 he sailed from Cawsand Bay, near Plymouth, with five ships. The expedition landed at St. John's, Newfoundland, and took formal possession of the island for the British Crown. The ships next crossed the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Cape Breton, where one vessel sank on a shoal. It was decided to return home and to fit out another expedition in spring. Off

the Azores a dreadful storm arose. Gilbert had insisted upon sailing in the smallest ship, the little 'frigate' *Squirrel*. The *Golden Hind*, the largest ship, tried to keep company. The last time they saw Sir Humphrey Gilbert, he was sitting calmly in the bow of his ship, reading a book.

The war with Spain. Open war between the Governments of England and Spain did not break out till 1588. The wonder was that peace had been kept so long. There were three causes for the feeling of enmity between the two countries: the first was religious, the second was maritime, the third was the revolt of the Spanish Netherlands.

As the years of Elizabeth's reign passed by, the people in general became more 'Protestant'. This led to a greater dislike for the Pope, and for Spain, which country was looked upon as the strong right arm of the Papacy.

Mary, Queen of Scots. Mary was the granddaughter of James IV of Scotland and his wife Queen Margaret. She had been brought up at the court of France as a strict Catholic, and had married the French king, Francis II, who reigned only one year. She returned to Scotland in 1561.

Mary did not get on well with her Scottish subjects, who had largely accepted the Reformed religion. She married her cousin, Henry Stuart, Earl of Darnley, a good-looking Scottish Catholic; her great favourite was David Riccio, an Italian, one of the singers in her chapel whom she raised to be her secretary. Darnley and others of the Scottish nobles could not endure this, so they broke into the Queen's dining-room in Holyrood Palace one night when she and Riccio were at supper,

and murdered the favourite (March 9, 1566). Mary got her revenge by allowing the Earl of Bothwell, a man of fierce, violent character, to blow up Darnley, who was lying ill in Kirk o' Field House, near where Edinburgh University now stands (February 1567). Then she let Bothwell carry her off to Dunbar and marry her. This was too much for any people to bear, even in those days. In the summer, 1567, they rose in revolt and scattered her troops near Edinburgh. She was imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, escaped, and was beaten again at Langside, near Glasgow (May 1568). Mary herself was present at the battle, and only escaped by galloping to the Solway, and then taking passage in a fishing-boat to the Cumberland coast. Elizabeth provided her with quarters, and treated her well, until plots began to be formed by Catholics to force Elizabeth from the throne, and to put the Catholic Mary in her place.

MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

In 1586 the most serious of these plots against Elizabeth's life was discovered, and evidence was found that Mary, almost certainly, knew of it. She was tried and executed at Fotheringay Castle in 1587. Pope Sixtus V immediately proclaimed a crusade against Elizabeth, and Spain answered the call with the Great Armada.

The Netherlands Revolt. The Netherlands, comprising the modern states of Holland and Belgium, had since 1519 been under Spanish governors. In 1567 the harsh government of the Duke of Alva produced a revolt

among the Netherlanders. A great deal of sympathy with the revolt was shown by the English, who justly considered that the Netherlanders were fighting for the religious and civil freedom which was so dear to the English themselves. Elizabeth herself would give no help to the revolt, but volunteers were allowed to go and take service against Spain.

The Netherlanders had equipped a few ships for war, and these cruised among their islands, and occasionally used English ports. In 1572 these ' Sea Beggars ', after waiting quietly in Dover port for their opportunity, sailed out, surprised a Spanish squadron that was taking to Antwerp money for the Duke of Alva's army, and captured the Dutch port of Brill.

In 1584 the Prince of Orange, the head of the States of the Netherlands, was assassinated by an agent of Philip of Spain. This was the greatest blow that the Netherlands cause had suffered. The next year Elizabeth sent the Earl of Leicester with 8,000 men to the Netherlands.

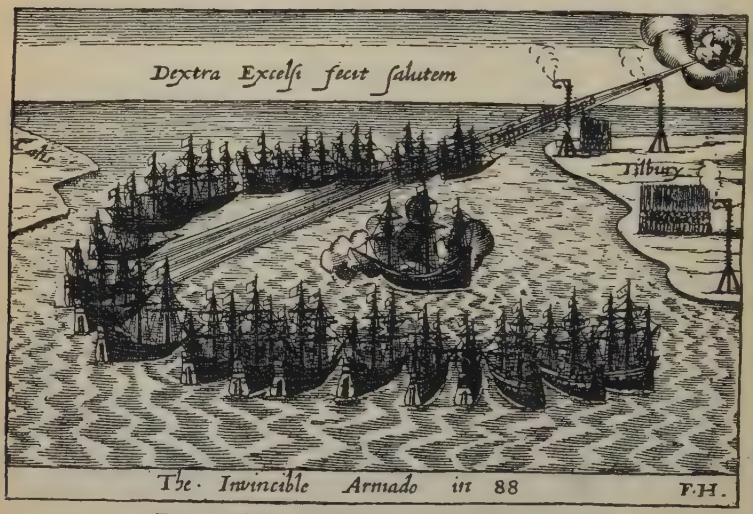
The expedition was not a great success. Leicester knew nothing of generalship, while the Spanish commander-in-chief, the Duke of Parma, was one of the first military leaders of the age. The attempt to capture the town of Zutphen, which was held by the Spaniards, has become famous through the death of Sir Philip Sidney, a man of great charm and many accomplishments, and a fine poet. He led three charges through the ranks of the Spanish cavalry ; in returning from the last his thigh-bone was shattered by a musket-ball. He kept his seat, and rode back to the English lines ; but he died at Arnheim a month later.

The Great Armada. The help which the English had

given to the Netherlands was one of the reasons for Philip sending the Great Armada of 1588. The two fleets which fought each other in the famous ten days at the end of July were fairly equal. The Great Armada contained about 137 ships, but of these only 69 were of sufficient size and armament to be much good for fighting. The rest were used chiefly for carrying munitions and stores. To meet this force Lord Howard of Effingham had about 90 ships in all, but in 'principal' or heavy fighting ships he was practically equal with the Spaniards. He had five great ships (i. e. over 800 tons), the biggest being the *Triumph*, 1,100 tons, and the *Bear*, 1,000 tons; he had eleven ships of over 400 tons, and six of over 100 tons. Against this fleet the Spanish admiral, the Duke of Medina Sidonia, had eight great ships, the largest being the *San Juan*, 1,050 tons, and the *San Martin*, 1,000 tons; eight ships of the 'middle sort' (over 400 tons), and three of the lesser sort. The rest of the fighting ships were simply armed merchantmen. The English ships were built with a low forecastle, while the Spanish ships had lofty forecastles; thus ship for ship the Spanish fleet looked more powerful, but it was not really so. In guns too, the fleets were, as far as can be judged, about equal; the English great-ships had each a battery of thirty-eight guns or more, while the Spanish great-ships carried about forty guns; but the total weight of shot fired by an English broadside is calculated to have been considerably heavier than the Spaniards'. Guns have recently (1919) been recovered from some of the sunken Spanish galleons off Tobermory in Mull.

Sir John Hawkins had been put at the head of the naval administration, and he knew how a ship should be 'found'. When the Armada was ready to sail,

Hawkins was able to say that the English ships in Plymouth Sound were 'in royal and perfect state, feeling the seas no more than if they had been riding at Chatham'. On land, volunteer companies had been started by gentlemen in every county, and thirty thousand men were in training to meet the Spaniards if they landed. An army of sixteen thousand men was mustered at Tilbury to protect London, and Elizabeth



From Carleton, *A Thankfull Remembrance*, 1624.

herself went down the Thames and made a noble speech to them:

'My loving People, We have been persuaded by some that are careful of our safety, to take heed how we commit ourselves to armed multitudes, for fear of treachery; but I assure you, I do not desire to live to distrust my faithful and loving people.

'Let tyrants fear; I have always so behaved myself

that, under God, I have placed my chiefest strength and safeguard in the loyal hearts and good will of my subjects, and therefore I am come amongst you, as you see, at this time, not for my recreation and disport, but being resolved, in the midst and heat of the battle, to live or die amongst you all, to lay down for my God, and for my kingdoms, and for my people, my honour and my blood, even in the dust.

'I know I have the body but of a weak and feeble woman; but I have the heart and stomach of a King, *and of a King of England too*; and think foul scorn that Parma or Spain, or any prince of Europe should dare to invade the borders of my realm, to which rather than any dishonour should grow by me, I myself will take up arms, I myself will be your general, judge, and rewarder of every one of your virtues in the field.'

The Armada was never to reach an English harbour. On May 20, 1588, the sails of the Spanish ships were hoisted and, gracefully filling and swelling to the northern breeze, took the stately Armada down the majestic River Tagus. Froude the modern historian thus describes the scene.

'The scene as the fleet passed out of the harbour must have been singularly beautiful. The early sun was lighting the long chain of the Gallician mountains, marking with shadows the cleft defiles and shining softly on the white walls and vineyards of Coruña. The wind was light and falling towards a calm; the great galleons drifted slowly with the tide on the purple water, the long streamers trailing from the trucks, the red crosses, the emblem of the crusade, showing bright upon the hanging sails. The fruit boats were bringing off the last fresh supplies, and the pinnaces hastening to the ships with the last loiterers on shore. Out of thirty thousand men who that morning stood upon the decks of the proud Armada twenty thousand and more were never again to see the hills of Spain. Of the remnant

who in two short months crept back ragged and torn, all but a few hundred returned only to die.'

On July 19 the beacons blazing from hill to hill announced along the English coast that the Spanish fleet was at hand. On July 20 the Spanish ships, in

A GALLEON.

crescent formation, sailed into the Channel, on the way to receive Parma's army in the Low Countries. As they passed slowly along with the light breeze that was blowing, the English ships stood out from Plymouth and followed in their wake, just out of cannon shot.

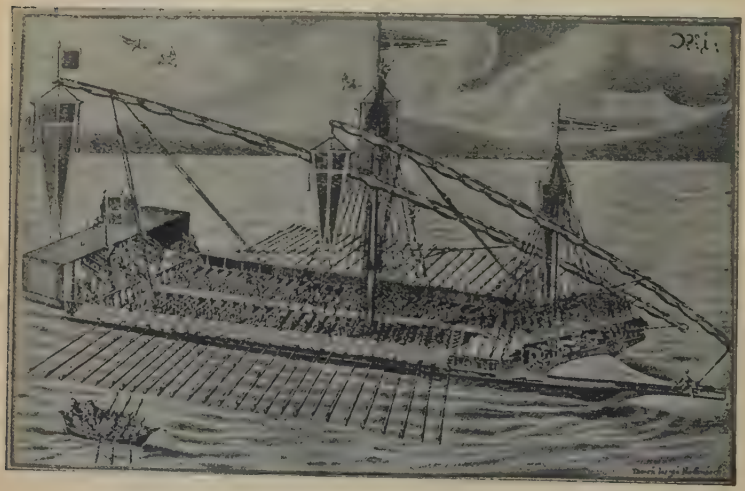
At dawn on July 21 the English were close by, and the Spaniards expected an action to take place; but it was not such as they looked for. The English ships, it was

found, could sail twice as fast, and manœuvre twice as quickly; while their cannon could also be fired and reloaded four times to every single discharge of the Spanish heavy artillery. The Admiral's flagship, *The Ark Royal*, and three others sailed across the track of the Armada, and raked it with three broadsides. A running fight ensued, lasting some hours. The Spanish ships, being to leeward of the English, heeled over, and the decks were tilted, so that their broadsides fired high, and passed over the low English ships.

By Friday, July 26, the fleets were almost clear of the Channel. The Spaniards bore towards Calais, while Lord Howard ran his ships up to Dover, to replenish his powder stocks.

The Armada, which was sorely battered and had lost two of its finest ships, made its way to Calais roads, and might soon have reached Antwerp, where Parma's army was awaiting it. On the night of July 28, however, the English captains tried a daring plan, which, being favoured by the weather, proved a brilliant success. Eight of the smaller and less useful vessels of the English fleet, filled with anything that would burn, with daring seamen on board, under a cloudy sky, and before a westerly wind, sailed into Calais roads. The sail-ropes were then tied, the helms lashed, and left. The crews made off in small boats. Suddenly, in the darkness of the night, the Spaniards became aware of the terrible blazing ships, sailing down upon them like demons of destruction. The ships of the Armada slipped their cables, and stood out again to sea, not in battle order, but in great confusion, and at dawn found the nimble English ships ready to harass them again. They had had no time to refit.

Spread out upon the open sea off Gravelines, the Armada (it had lost its greatest galleon coming out of Calais roads), was brought to bay by the English ships. Drake's squadron, never resting, gave the Spaniards no leisure to array themselves; he approached to within almost a hundred yards of the enemy, so as to be sure of his mark, and poured in shot after shot. The English



A GALLEY. From Furttenbach's *Architectura Navalis*, 1629.

losses were wonderfully light. The remaining three galleons sank; three fine ships fell away, drifting helplessly before the westerly wind to the Flemish coast. The Armada had now little powder left. The Spaniards, although they fought with the utmost courage, were being driven off in a tempest of bloodshed. At the end of the day (July 29), the Spanish Admiral resolved to make for Spain, with whatever portion of his great fleet

he could save. The wind did not favour a return by the western route, so he gave the signal to hoist sail, stand out to the North Sea, and make for Spain by the northern way round Scotland. Lord Howard and Drake clung to them as long as they could, always hoping they would turn and offer battle. Wounded and lame, the Armada toiled on, ships occasionally falling away and sinking, the rest casting overboard their horses and mules, to save the water that was now so scarce. But the English ships were not provisioned for a voyage, and off the coast of Norfolk the weather grew bad and scattered them. Off Newcastle Howard and Drake had to go back to the Thames for stores, but the gale completed their work and shattered the Armada. When the gale began, there were still afloat 119 out of the 130 ships which had left Spain less than a fortnight before; but only 52 leaking vessels crawled back to Spanish ports after the terrible journey round the Orkneys and the West of Ireland.

The last expeditions against Spain. The defeat of the Great Armada not merely saved England from Spain. It gave the English the command of the Channel, and so cut the communication by sea between Spain and her armies in the Netherlands. The Dutch had to continue the struggle for twenty years; but there was no longer any danger that Spain would subdue them. They became strong upon the sea, and gradually built up a great colonial empire for themselves. Englishmen, too, took more than ever to the sea, to plant a great empire in the West, and from this time our maritime power steadily increased.

In 1591 a naval expedition set forth to intercept the Spanish treasure-ships which came from South America. They were to be met off the Azores; but when the

English squadron, numbering 16 ships, under Lord Thomas Howard, were lying off the island of Flores, a pinnace brought news of a Spanish fleet of 53 sail coming against him. So he weighed anchor and set off, judging that his men and ships were in no condition to meet the Spanish fleet. But the Vice-Admiral, Richard Grenville, in the *Revenge* (500 tons), a man of fierce nature, refused to leave at the same time (August 31). That evening he found himself cut off by the 53 ships of Spain, and at once resolved to fight his way through. But the great Spanish ships, towering above the *Revenge*, with their huge spreading sails, took the wind away from it, and the English ship lay becalmed among its adversaries. The fight that ensued has been narrated in noble prose by Walter Raleigh, who was Grenville's cousin, and by Tennyson in perhaps the finest battle-poem in the English language. In the end the *Revenge* was captured, and Grenville died of his wounds on board the Spanish flagship, the *San Pablo*.

It was in August 1595 that Drake set forth on his last voyage. His expedition consisted of 27 sail, with Sir John Hawkins as vice-admiral. From the first it had no success. Sir John Hawkins died off Porto Rico. It was now Drake's time to meet his end. He died off Porto Bello, in his ship the *Defiance*, and his body was put in a leaden coffin and sunk in the sea (Jan. 27, 1596).

> The waves became his winding-sheet; the waters were his tomb.

Ireland. The English settlement of Ireland had made considerable progress since the days of Henry II and Strongbow, but even in Elizabeth's time Ireland was still a foreign country and the scene of war. The land

directly governed by the English 'Deputy' stretched from the neighbourhood of Dundalk on the north to below Dublin on the south, and extended for 30–40 miles inland. The rest of Ireland was indirectly under the English Government, but was chiefly left to the great

Irish or Anglo-Irish (often called Anglo-Norman) families, who were supposed to be in the English interest.

There were many rebellions against English rule, the last in Elizabeth's time being raised by Hugh O'Neil, third Earl of Tyrone. He began his rebellion in 1594, was defeated, pardoned, and again intrigued with Spain. Philip II of Spain sent an Armada to help him in 1596, but storms broke up this expedition before any fighting was done. In 1598 Sir Henry Bagnal, who was

Marshal of the Queen's forces in Ireland, was defeated and slain on the Blackwater by Hugh O'Neil. The English rule in Ireland seemed almost at an end. In 1599 the Earl of Essex was sent as Deputy by Queen Elizabeth to carry on the war, but he preferred to make a truce with the O'Neil. Returning to England as a disappointed man, he joined in a plot to displace by force the councillors of the Queen, and in 1601 he was executed. In Ireland matters would have gone from bad to worse but for the energy of one of Essex's friends, whom the Queen sent to succeed him as Lord Deputy. This was Baron Mountjoy, who had fought in the wars in the Netherlands and against the Armada. Mountjoy, receiving adequate forces from England, put a garrison in all the chief towns. A second Spanish expeditionary force, which landed at Kinsale (1601), was blockaded and captured. Everywhere else the rebels were either defeated or starved out, for Mountjoy's garrisons swept the country around. By the end of Elizabeth's reign the rebellion was at an end. Hugh O'Neil died in exile at Rome in 1608.

Under Elizabeth Ireland cannot be said to have prospered, although education was encouraged by the foundation of Trinity College at Dublin in 1590. The rebellions were crushed without pity, and much of the country was ruined. This work of destruction never had to be done again on a great scale. In 1580 some of the land was offered to English gentry, and especially to soldiers, who were to make estates and farms in Munster. Among others who accepted the offer was Edmund Spenser, the great poet, who took land round Kilcolman Castle (near Cork), where he lived, at intervals, from 1588 to 1598, when the castle was burned during the rebellion of Hugh O'Neil. At Kilcolman Spenser wrote

The Faerie Queene. A more successful colonist was Walter Raleigh, who acquired an estate at Youghal, and introduced the potato-plant there.

Religious troubles. In the last half of Elizabeth's reign the Government and the Church authorities became stricter than they had been.

Elizabeth's wish that her people should all follow the same religion became stronger than ever. There were, however, a number of people who disagreed with the use of vestments in church. Further, certain of the clergy had taken to holding private gatherings, where they discussed the Scriptures and to which they admitted laymen as hearers. These meetings, called *prophesyings*, became a kind of religious services, but not according to the way laid down in the Book of Common Prayer.

In 1583 John Whitgift, Bishop of Worcester, was made Archbishop. He revived the Court of High Commission to punish offenders against the ecclesiastical laws of the country. By this time a fairly large number of people, both clergy and laity, had grown quite dissatisfied with the English Church system; some wished to have the Church governed by presbyteries (or councils), rather than by bishops; others, followers of Robert Browne, wished each congregation to be quite independent. Both the Presbyterians and the Independents were severely dealt with by Whitgift.

Parliamentary Opposition. In the last ten years of Elizabeth's reign there were great grumblings against the grant to various people—courtiers, generally, like Raleigh—of the sole right to trade in salt, or leather, or gold wire, and so forth. When the Parliament of 1597 tried to stop these monopolies, the Queen sent the Lord Keeper to tell the Commons that she would settle the

question herself. In 1601, however, the murmurs grew stronger, and Parliament again proposed to abolish the patents. This time Elizabeth saw she must yield freely or by compulsion. She preferred to do it freely and with a charming grace. Calling the Speaker to her, she intimated that she would herself at once revoke all grants which could be proved injurious to the country. This was one of her last public actions. The same Parliament in 1601 passed the great act regarding Poor Relief. All maimed soldiers, and people too old or too sick to work, were to be provided for in hospitals, and all 'valiant beggars' were to be forced to work.

The end of the reign. Queen Elizabeth died in March 1603. She had ruled in a period of great danger and wonderful development, when England produced the greatest men of the time, on the sea and in the world of letters. Her character has been described by Sir Francis Bacon, whose father was one of her confidential ministers:

'It is worthy of our observation to consider in what sort of times she flourished. For some ages are so barbarous and ignorant that men have been governed with as much ease as a shepherd manages and drives his sheep. But this princess lived in a most learned and polite age; wherein it required great parts and a high degree of virtue to be excellent. A female government is likewise very often eclipsed by marriage and all the praises and conduct is bestowed upon the husband, whilst those who live unmarried have no sharers or partners in their glory. And in this was our queen to be the more commended in that her throne stood upon no other basis than what she herself had erected. She had no brother, no uncle, nor any other of the royal family to partake of her cares or share in her government. But even those whom she did advance to any places of trust

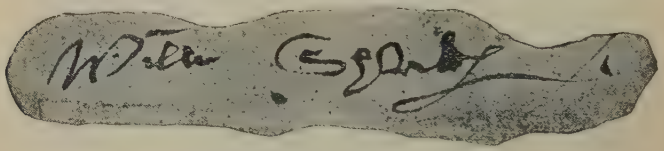
were so managed and kept in such awe that each of them was anxious how to please her, so that she was always mistress of herself.'

QUEEN ELIZABETH PICNICKING OUT HUNTING.
From Turbervile's *Book of Hunting.*

'She was tall of stature, well shaped in her body, and had in her face the mixture of sweetness and majesty; and always enjoyed a very sound health. Besides all this she was strong and vigorous to the very last, never experienced the changes of fortune nor the miseries of old age, and at last died an easy and gentle death.'

Although she died childless, the last of her race, she was able to leave an undisturbed kingdom to the new line of kings, the Stuarts, who, though coming from an alien country, were quietly accepted by the English as their rulers.

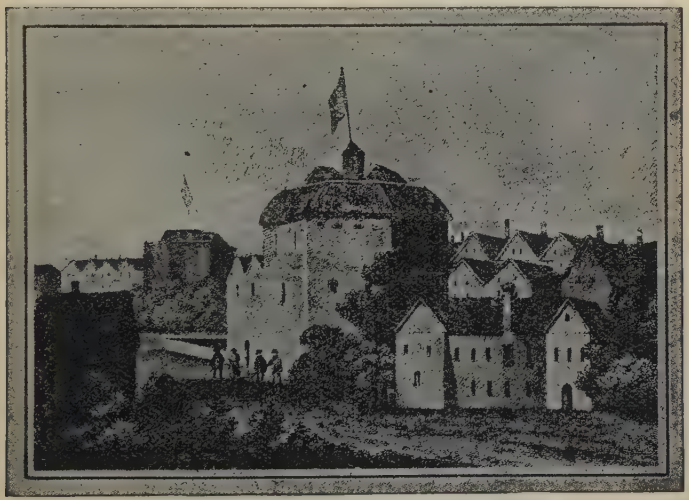
Shakespeare. William Shakespeare was the son of a corn-dealer in Stratford-on-Avon; the house where he was born is still to be seen in that beautiful old English town. He was educated at the Stratford Grammar School, entered his father's business, and married, at the age of 18, Anne Hathaway. In 1586, being now 22 years old, he tramped to London, leaving his



SHAKESPEARE'S SIGNATURE.

wife and family behind him. At London he became an actor. In this profession he distinguished himself, and though he is known now as the world's greatest dramatist, he was best known in Elizabeth's reign as a fine actor. When the Globe Theatre was built in Southwark, in 1599, Shakespeare was able to acquire a share in it; and though the plays which he was writing only brought him in £10–£15 each, he was soon getting from his share in the theatre and other investments about £600 a year. He was able to buy a good house in his native place, Stratford; to this house he went on visits, and there his wife and family lived. It was not till 1611 that he settled finally at Stratford, where he interested himself in local affairs till his death in 1616.

With *Love's Labour's Lost* Shakespeare's period of play-writing began in 1591, three years after the victory over the Spanish Armada. Then came the Italian plays, *The Two Gentlemen of Verona, The Comedy of Errors, Romeo and Juliet. Richard II*, perhaps his finest historical play, appeared in 1594, *Richard III* having been written in the previous year. *The Merchant of Venice* and *King*



THE GLOBE THEATRE.

John were being written about the same time; and the beautiful 'Sonnets', though not published till James I's reign, were known in this period to Shakespeare's friends. In *Henry IV* (1597) the part of Falstaff so pleased the Queen that she called on him to draw the stout knight again, this time in love. Shakespeare responded with *The Merry Wives of Windsor*. Before Queen Elizabeth died he had added *Henry V* to his great series of English

historical plays, and had begun on ancient history with *Julius Caesar*; in 1602 came *Hamlet*, in which Richard Burbage, the greatest of the Elizabethan actors, took the leading part, while Shakespeare himself acted the Ghost. Other plays (notably *Othello*, *King Lear*, *Antony and Cleopatra*, *The Tempest*) followed in King James's reign.

ELIZABETHAN ARCHITECTURE.
Barlborough Hall, 1583–1584.

MOWAT'S
GRAPHIC HISTORY
OF
GREAT BRITAIN

PART II
TO 1815

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PREFATORY NOTE

The present volume is an abridged and simplified form of Mr. Mowat's well-known larger work : it is designed specially for pupils in Elementary and Preparatory Schools. The features and qualities of the original work have been preserved as far as possible, and a large proportion of the pictorial illustrations has been retained.

MOWAT'S GRAPHIC HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

PART II. FROM 1603 TO 1815

CHAPTER XVII

THE GENESIS OF THE GREAT REBELLION

The greatness of the Stuart Period. Great as was the sixteenth century, with the Reformation and its famous writers—Shakespeare, Spenser, Marlowe, and Sidney—the seventeenth seemed greater still. Milton, Dryden, Defoe, and Swift belong to this age, although the two last belong to the eighteenth century also; the grand prose of Clarendon, the *Pilgrim's Progress* of Bunyan, the wonderful writings of Bacon, Hobbes, and Locke, the eloquence of Jeremy Taylor, the genius of Isaac Newton, mark this century as one of the greatest in the history of thought and letters.

The conditions of life improved quietly and surely. Land was carefully farmed, fens were drained; the towns flourished with many useful handicrafts, carried on by master-workers in their homes. Overseas colonies were established—New England, Virginia, Carolina—and the foundations were laid of the British Empire in India.

Two of the greatest events of the period, the Rebellion and Revolution, brought about greater liberty of speech and act, and firmly established our form of government, which has been a model to the whole world.

The reign of James I. There were three causes which helped to bring about the Great Rebellion of 1642. The

first was the dependence of James upon favourites; the second cause was the unjust methods of Charles in obtaining money from the country; the third was the religious policy of the first two Stuarts.

A favourite owed his high position, not to his ability or to his experience, but solely to the King's friendship. Thus it often happened that the good advice given by those who had gained their position through ability and good service to the country was set aside through the influence of the favourite.

JAMES I

For the first nine years of the reign the country was fairly satisfied under the rule of King James and his wise Secretary, Cecil.

Cecil died in 1612, and James gave his whole confidence to Robert Carr, a Scottish gentleman whom he made Earl of Somerset. Carr's public career ended with a scandal; he and his wife were found (in 1616) to have been parties to the poisoning of a friend who stood in their way.

The next favourite was George Villiers, the handsome son of a Leicestershire squire. The mother obtained an introduction for her son at Court, and the King, who was attracted by the very charming young man, soon made his fortune. In 1619 Villiers became Lord High Admiral of England. He obtained from James the title of Duke of Buckingham, together with pensions and estates.

The Thirty Years' War. James's daughter, the beloved Princess Elizabeth, had in 1612 married a Protestant German prince, Frederick V, 'Elector Palatine' of the

Rhine. In 1619 the Protestant nobles of Bohemia offered the crown to Frederick. He accepted it, and ruled as king for one short winter. At the battle of the White Hill, Prague, 1620, he was routed by the Catholic princes of Germany. He lost Bohemia, and within two more years had lost the Palatinate too, which was occupied by a Spanish army. Elizabeth and her family found a home among the Dutch. Thus began the fearful Thirty Years' War. It was a religious struggle, in which all the German states, Spain, Denmark, Sweden, and finally France, took part ; but Great Britain had no direct share in it.

The Spanish Marriage Project. King James was a man of great learning, of high intellectual powers, and with a genuine desire to promote peace. He refused to take part in the Thirty Years' War. He hoped to make a marriage between his son Charles and the 'Infanta' (the eldest daughter of the King of Spain).

The projected marriage came to nothing, although in 1623 Prince Charles and Buckingham visited Madrid to arrange the terms of the marriage. This caused the British people to fear that James was friendly to the Roman Catholics in England, and feeling against the King at once became strong.

Parliamentary History. James reigned for twenty-two years, and in that period held four Parliaments. The second (known as the 'Addled Parliament') existed for only seven weeks.

James quarrelled with each Parliament about Religion, Money, and Foreign Policy.

The first question was Religion. In the latter part of Queen Elizabeth's reign Puritanism had been growing very strong ; and when James came to the throne the Puritans were anxiously expecting better treatment than

they had endured under the old queen. In this they were to be disappointed, for in 1604, at a Conference held at Hampton Court, the King said, 'I will make them conform themselves, or else I will harrie them out of the land.' The English people would have been more openly opposed to James's Church policy had not the Gunpowder Plot occurred to make them think that perhaps too much freedom was rather dangerous. The 'Guys' which English boys carry through the streets on November 5 serve to remind us that, on that day in the year 1605, Guy Fawkes, an Englishman who had served in the Spanish Army, and Robert Catesby just failed to blow up both King and Parliament.

Money, as well as religion, caused trouble between James and his first and second Parliaments. He increased the rates at which Tunnage and Poundage had to be paid. The Second or Addled Parliament was so angry with James's impositions that it refused to pass any of his measures and was dissolved (1614).

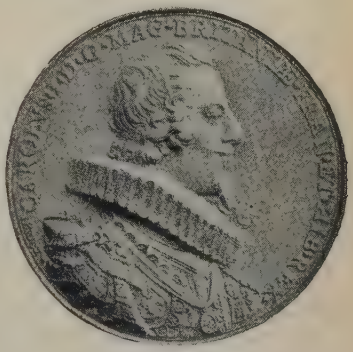
In the third Parliament the dispute raged chiefly over Foreign Policy. Parliament wanted England to take part in the Thirty Years' War. James, on the other hand, rightly or wrongly, thought he would get his way with the Germans and Spaniards by negotiation. He told the Commons that it was not their business even to discuss foreign policy, and he warned them particularly 'not to deal with our dearest son's match with the daughter of Spain'. The Commons replied with a Protestation that

'the arduous and urgent affairs concerning the King, state and defence of the realm, and of the Church of England, . . . are proper subjects and matter of counsel and debate in Parliament'.

Like nearly all the Parliaments of the first two Stuarts, the Parliament of 1621 was dissolved in anger by the King.

The fourth and last Parliament passed an important statute forbidding the granting of monopolies in trade or commerce (1624).

James died on March 27, 1625. During his reign James 'planted' Ulster with Scottish colonists; in 1607 he had authorized the expedition to Virginia, which began permanent settlement there (Jamestown); and in 1620 the 'Pilgrim Fathers' from the *Mayflower* landed at Cape Cod in Massachusetts, and began to make a New England.



CHARLES I

Charles I. Charles was the sort of man who ought to have made a splendid king. When he succeeded to the throne he was only twenty-five years old. As a boy he had been sickly, 'yet he came', says Sir Philip Warwick, 'to have as firm and strong a body, as most persons I ever knew'. He had beautiful, strongly marked features, dark hair, which he wore long, in the style of gentlemen of that day; his mouth was firm, his eyes large, clear, and calm. He rode well, played tennis excellently (chiefly in the old court at Hampton Court), and was always moderate in eating and drinking. In manner he was dignified, and he spoke slowly and thoughtfully. He would not allow any ungentlemanly conduct in his

Court, and he was extremely regular and devout in attending religious worship. Convinced of his own good intentions, he could never believe himself to be in the wrong; so that he was impatient of all opposition. When the Great Rebellion came he bore all the hardships of campaigning with an easy mind and perfect health of body; when he came to die, he met his fate with splendid quiet courage.

When he became king, Charles, as he had long learned to do, gave all his confidence to the Duke of Buckingham. Buckingham had arranged with King James that Charles should marry a French princess. The treaty was arranged, but James died (March 1625) before the marriage was completed. The lady chosen was Henrietta Maria, daughter of the great King Henry IV of France. She was fond of her husband, yet proved his evil genius.

The Île de Rhe. Buckingham's policy soon brought on war with France, in spite of the marriage of Henrietta Maria. The Huguenots, the Protestants of France, were allowed to have a fortified city of their own, La Rochelle. In 1627 La Rochelle was being besieged. Buckingham took a naval and military expedition to help it. He landed in the Île de Rhé, opposite the port of La Rochelle, but after over two months of hard fighting was forced to return, with a loss of over half his men. The expedition had been grossly mismanaged, the ships were badly equipped (one was said to have the same rigging as it had used when sailing against the Armada), the soldiers badly fed and not paid. Buckingham was assassinated at Portsmouth in August 1628 by a disappointed officer, John Felton, who had been passed over for a captaincy. Buckingham, though a poor statesman, was a dashing

soldier, and shared all the hardships with his men, sleeping like a common soldier on the marshy ground of the Île de Rhé, and exposing himself in the front of the fight with the utmost bravery. Charles loved him, and after Buckingham's death never gave his confidence to any one else.

The break-down of Parliamentary Government. Charles I held three Parliaments before he began his Personal Government (1629 to 1640) which brought him to the Great Rebellion. With each successive Parliament his relations became worse than ever. The income of the Crown was little more than in Queen Elizabeth's time, although the expenses of the King were much greater, and the value of money less. Parliament, however, would not vote more money.

The Five Knights' Case. A real crisis occurred in 1627. In order to raise the forces necessary for the expedition to the Île de Rhé, Charles had recruited men by 'press', that is, simply by seizing them and forcing them to serve. Money was also wanting, so Charles asked for a loan (which no one meant to give, and which the King could not repay), and he proceeded to collect the loan by force; those who refused to pay were fined before the 'Star Chamber'. Five knights who refused to pay were put in prison. When they applied to be charged with their offence and tried in a regular court, they were refused, and kept in prison without trial. The reason the judges gave for this decision was that the King 'by special command' could imprison any one 'without cause shown'.

Thus the 'Five Knights' remained in prison at the King's discretion. Very shortly afterwards, it is true, he set them free, but his point was gained: he had

proved that he could do as he pleased with the bodies and property of his subjects.

The Petition of Right. When the third Parliament of Charles I met in 1628 it was determined to bring about at least the dismissal of all those who gave bad advice to the King. Under the British Constitution, the King himself cannot be considered ever to do wrong, and therefore cannot be called to account, but his ministers and advisers can. Charles, however, would not allow this, so the nation's hands were tied; it could neither control the King nor in any way check the ministers.

The House of Commons brought forward a Bill, called the 'Petition of Right', to which Charles at last assented. It declared it to be illegal to levy any tax without the consent of Parliament; to imprison any English subject without a proper trial; to billet soldiers in private houses.

The Personal Government. Down to 1629 Charles had held three Parliaments. His experience of the last, however, had made him resolve to rule without any more in the future. There is no law which compels the sovereign to summon Parliament every year; it is only the necessity of providing for the annual expenses of the kingdom which requires the annual meeting. Charles, however, hoped by economy to make his ordinary income suffice, so that he should be independent of Parliament.

Yet when everything was scraped together there was still not enough to pay for the ordinary expenses of the Government. Another method had, therefore, to be devised: the Crown decided to levy Ship Money.

Ship Money. The first writ for the levy of 'Ship Money' was issued in 1634, when England was at peace.

Moreover, the writ was sent out on August 4, but the shipping, or the equivalent in money, which was asked from the ports, was not to be delivered till the 1st of March following. Parliament might have been summoned in the interval at least to approve the action of the King. Ship Money was again demanded by Charles in 1635, this time not merely from ports, but from inland counties. It was, in fact, becoming a permanent tax, without any consent on the part of the tax-payers or Members of Parliament. It is true that the Ship Money was all spent, honestly and usefully, on the Fleet. This does not excuse the manner in which it was levied.

John Hampden. John Hampden, a Buckinghamshire squire, of good family and ample means, of the highest character, and one of the most respected men in the country, objected to paying 'Ship Money'. The King had him tried before a Court of twelve judges who were believed to be in favour of Charles's right to levy the tax. Seven judges out of the twelve decided against Hampden.

This result taught the people that the King could levy any tax he liked without consulting Parliament, and they must either obey, or resist by force.

Thus the King's action had made rebellion certain.

Archbishop Laud. Charles's adviser in all that had to do with the Church was William Laud, Bishop of London from 1628 to 1633, and after that Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud was a well-educated man. He was sincerely religious, and desired to see all the people living in peace and unity. For this reason he laboured by all means to produce uniformity of worship throughout the land. The English, however, were an undisciplined people, disliking compulsion of every kind, especially in religious affairs,

in which they believed the Reformation had given them complete freedom. Laud insisted that congregations should all observe the same procedure at the Holy Communion, that the Communion table should be placed at the east end of the chancel, and that every one should bow towards the table on entering the church. Those who disobeyed were fined, while some even had one or both ears cut off.

ARCHBISHOP LAUD.

Hostilities actually broke out first in Scotland. In 1633 Charles went to be crowned in Scotland. The ceremony of coronation was carried out by the Scottish bishops. In 1636 a Prayer Book of a 'High Church' character was drawn up by Laud, and commanded to be used by all the Scottish clergy and congregations, who until then had used no Prayer Book at all. The attempt to use the Prayer Book in St. Giles's Church, Edinburgh, in July 1637, provoked a riot, which within a few months became a war.

In February 1638 the chief nobles and gentry and Presbyterian clergy of Scotland signed the 'National Covenant'. The Covenant declared the worship of the Reformed Kirk of Scotland to be the true worship of the country, and that none other should be recognized there.

The King got together an army, and set out for the

Scottish border. The Scots Covenanters, on their side, had collected a fine volunteer army, officered by skilful soldiers who had fought in the Thirty Years' War. This army posted itself near Berwick (June 1639). When the two forces met each other there was no fighting; Charles saw that his military position was hopeless and signed the Treaty of Berwick (June 24), promising to let the Scots settle their religion in a 'free Parliament' at Edinburgh.

The end of Personal Government. Charles now turned to the ablest official in his service, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, who had been Lord-Lieutenant in Ireland. Strafford saw that the system of personal government had failed, and he wisely advised the King once more to summon Parliament, the link, which for eleven years had been missing, between the Government and the people. So in April 1640 the 'Short Parliament' met. Charles asked for a million pounds, and offered to give up the levy of Ship Money. Parliament asked for more concessions, and the King impatiently dissolved it (May 5). He then determined to rule without Parliament. He tried to force the Scots to include bishops among their clergy: this they refused to do. Charles then got an army together, but before he could reach the border he was compelled to sign peace.

Personal government having failed once again, the King had to call Parliament together in order to get money to pay his army.

Crown and Country. When the 'Long Parliament' met on November 3, 1640, there had been open war for over a year. Charles had failed to put down the Scottish rebellion, because the English people, as a whole, had shown not the slightest inclination to take part on the King's side. The Puritans, who objected to Laud's

'High Church' customs, the country gentry, who resented being excluded from Parliament and public affairs, the townspeople and merchants, who feared high taxation, were all determined that the laws should be amended, so as definitely to remedy the grievances of which they complained. There was to be no longer the

PASTIMES. A game of Chess

possibility of eleven years of personal government by the monarch. Charles and his Parliament could not agree, and the war between Crown and Parliament followed. The reason was, that the 'Parliamentarians' would not trust Charles to keep the laws, if he retained control of the militia, the armed force of the country. They therefore demanded that the control of the militia should be transferred from Crown to Parliament; Charles refused, and war ensued.

The Long Parliament. The Commons began by impeaching the Earl of Strafford and Archbishop Laud before the House of Lords. The real offence of Strafford was that he was a strong man, who believed in a system of sound government. The Commons believed that, if he were left alive, Charles might again be able to set up personal government. Strafford had proved a very successful Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, and had trained a military force there, which the Commons feared might be brought over to England to compel the people to support the King.

The Puritans had made up their minds that Laud must go too. A doggerel verse current at the moment expressed their view:

> If Strafford were once away
> Canterbury would make no stay.

When the trial of Strafford before the House of Lords was found not to be proceeding exactly as the Commons wished, they brought in a Bill of Attainder, to have him executed by Act of Parliament for high treason. The Bill passed both Houses, and King Charles gave his assent (May 10, 1641). Strafford met his fate calmly, having, in the hope of saving the Crown, actually urged Charles to sign the death-warrant. Laud, after being kept in prison for four years, was executed by Parliament in January 1645.

The Reforming Acts. Some very important Bills were passed by the Long Parliament and assented to by the King. The first was the Triennial Act (February 1641), which provided that a Parliament should be held at least once every three years. The second Act made it certain that the Long Parliament should not be

dissolved by the King without its own consent (May). This gave the Parliament unlimited time for carrying out its measures of reform. Next courts, among them the Star Chamber, which the Government specially controlled were abolished (July 1641). Another measure made Ship Money illegal. A long statement of grievances, called the Grand Remonstrance, was drawn up, and ordered by the Commons to be printed (November 1641).

The Grand Remonstrance. The Grand Remonstrance asked the King to choose only such ministers as had the confidence of Parliament. The rest of the document was nothing less than a grand accusation against Charles and his policy, bringing his power into contempt. The Remonstrance was so severe that it seems as if the Commons meant to do away with Charles as King altogether, either by making him abdicate or by some other means.

The Grand Remonstrance was passed by a majority of eleven votes. Oliver Cromwell, one of the members for Huntingdon, said on leaving the House that if the Bill had not passed, 'he would have sold all he had the next morning, and never seen England more'.

The Impeachment of the Five Members. Charles now made a bad mistake. He suddenly appeared with an armed force in Parliament, personally to impeach five members of the Commons and one member of the Lords (January 3, 1642). The accused members were Pym, Hampden, Holles, Haselrig, Strode, and Lord Kimbolton.

The scene is described in a report of the House of Commons:

'Many soldiers, Papists and others, to the number of about five hundred came with His Majesty on Tuesday

last to the said House of Commons, armed with swords, pistols and other weapons, and divers of them pressed to the door of the said House, thrust away the door-keepers, and placed themselves between the said door and the ordinary attendants of His Majesty, holding up their swords and some holding up their pistols ready cocked near the said door and saying, "I am a good marksman; I can hit right, I warrant you."'

Charles did not gain his purpose, for the members had escaped from the House when the King made his undignified entry into it.

The opening of war. The reply of the Commons to this was to demand that the whole military and naval power of the Crown should be delivered into their hands. For this is what the Militia Bill (March 1642) practically meant. If Charles had assented to it, the Parliament would have had command of all forts and of the militia, that is, of all English subjects when called out under arms. He refused his assent, and chose war instead. Indeed, he could do nothing else, if he was to remain King at all. On April 23 Charles came before the fortress of Hull, and found that the Royal Governor, Sir John Hotham, had barred it against him. The Commons, under whose instructions Hotham was acting, had in effect deposed the King.

The Irish Rebellion. The situation which both the King and Parliament had to face was made more difficult by events in Ireland. For in the autumn of 1641 a terrible rebellion had been started there, and was raging all the time that the Civil War was going on in England. The rebellion began with a rising of the native Irish against the in-comers who had settled upon their lands in Ulster. Numberless people were murdered, and the most fearful atrocities were committed. The English

and Scottish settlers retaliated, and the war in Ireland became a savage struggle. Until Charles was defeated in England, the Parliament had no forces to spare for Ireland; and it was not till eight years after the rebellion had started that Cromwell, by his iron methods, brought peace to the country.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE GREAT REBELLION AND THE COMMONWEALTH

The spirit of the combatants. The war between Parliamentarians and Royalists in England (1642–9) was waged to settle the respective rights of Crown and Parliament. Towards the end, religious feeling appeared more prominently: 'Religion', said Cromwell in a later speech, 'was not the thing at first contended for, but God brought it to that issue at the last.' The executions of Laud in 1645 and of King Charles in 1649 were largely due to religious feeling, but no others in England seem to have been put to death on account of their faith.

The ordinary size of an army during this struggle was 7,000 to 10,000. Sometimes it rose to 15,000, occasionally to 20,000. The discipline on the whole was good. The King's forces were the worst offenders. The supplies taken for the Parliamentary armies were paid for. But the forces of the King were not quite so just, and the cavalry of Prince Rupert (Charles's nephew) gained a bad reputation for plundering. When Charles was besieging Gloucester on the Severn in 1643 he was unable to find supplies in the surrounding country; yet when the Parliamentary army, under the Earl of Essex, came up

to relieve the city, provisions were at once produced from various hiding-places in the country-side for the army that could pay and did not steal.

Throughout the war both sides fought with great determination, each to force its will upon the other. Yet they did not on this account fight with cruelty. Prisoners were taken, and found their lot tolerable.

CHARLES I AS AN ARCHER

The King's forces. To Charles's side there rallied not all, but by far the greater number of the nobility, and also a majority of the country gentlemen.

The Parliamentary forces. The King was strong in cavalry, for the country gentry came to him with their own horses and also mounted their tenants. Parliament had a certain number of country gentlemen too, but for the most part it had to depend on hired men, by no means all trained to arms and to field sports, like the cavaliers, and altogether of a poorer quality.

Cromwell, a Huntingdonshire squire of small property, had distinguished himself in the fighting between Roundheads and Cavaliers in the eastern counties. He found then that the small farmers and yeoman tenants, men of some means and of sound Puritan views, made

magnificent fighters ; and he resolved to make these the basis of the 'New Model' Army. The immense will-power of Cromwell impressed all who came near him. His influence in the Long Parliament grew with each year of the war, and eventually the military power was in his hands.

AN ARMY ON THE MARCH

The local war. The war was fought out in two ways, which might be called the local and the central. The local war went on in every county, where the gentry took sides, and either defended or besieged country houses, or carried out small raids. Such is the warfare described so well in Ludlow's *Memoirs*.

The central war. Apart from the local strife of Cavalier and Roundhead, there were the grand campaigns and the great battles of the field armies. It was these battles that decided the struggle. Charles for most of the time

had his head-quarters at Oxford, where the colleges provided good accommodation for his court and gentlemen; the town itself was defended by the numerous streams which for miles around run into the Thames and Cherwell. Oxford proved to be a place of great strength; and even after the battle of Naseby Charles was able to return to it. In 1646 it endured a five months' siege, and this time Charles was only able to escape from it disguised as a servant (April 27, 1646). All through the Civil War skirmishes had taken place at five to fifteen miles' distance from the town, and it was in one such engagement that John Hampden was killed in 1643, having encountered some of Rupert's troops at Chalgrove Field, about thirteen miles south-east of Oxford. His loss was a great blow to Parliament, as he was one of its noblest members.

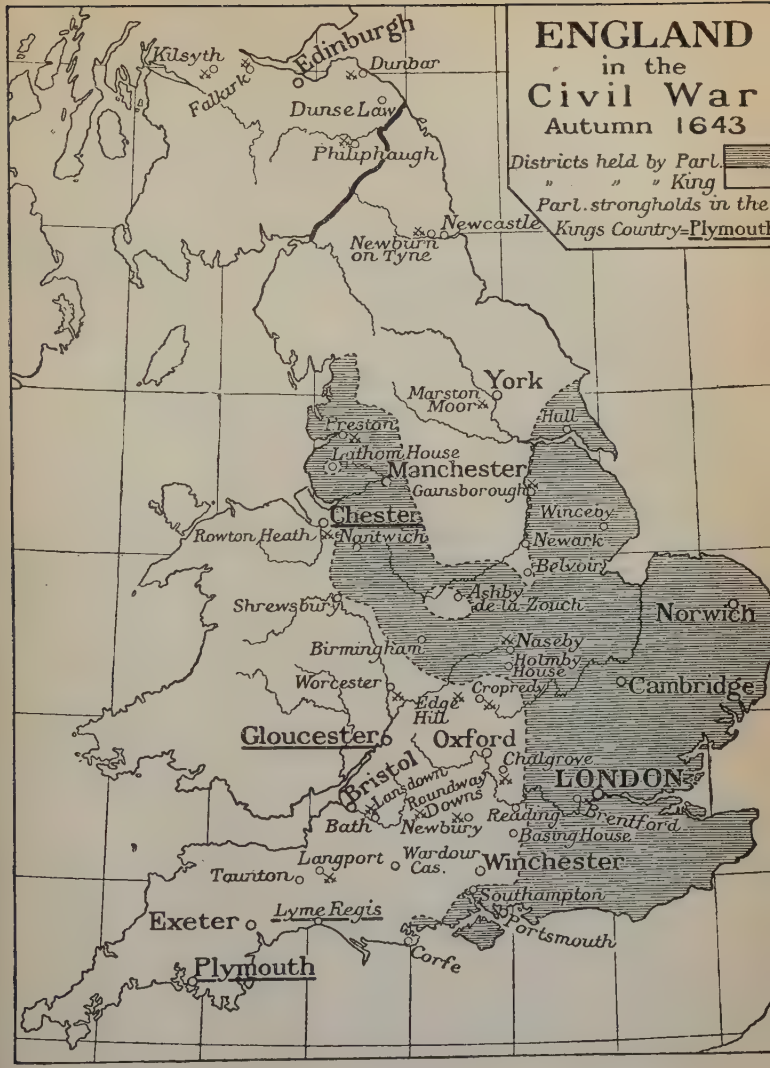
The Campaign of 1642. By the time summer had come round in 1642 it was clear to Charles that the Parliament men were openly defying him. It was of the highest importance to him that he should hold the arsenals, where such arms and gunpowder as the Crown possessed were stored. It was for this reason that in April 1642 he appeared with a company of men outside Hull, the royal fortress on the Humber, but was refused admittance. There was nothing for it, therefore, but war, and on August 22 Charles erected the Royal Standard on the Castle-hill at Nottingham; but few people gathered round.

Charles had no regular soldiers, and his gentlemen and their followers were at first a motley crew. In September, ill equipped with what they could privately supply, they marched away into the West Country (where the King's cause was stronger) 'dressed rather

like strolling players than like a king and the prime of his nobility going forth to war' (Trevelyan).

It was not long before a pitched battle took place. The Earl of Essex and the Parliamentary army went out from London to meet Charles in the West, but Charles, having collected a fair number of men, started to cross England and make for London. The opposing forces met just below Edgehill, which 'rises high over the undulating plain of Warwickshire' (about 29 miles distant from Oxford), and fought an inconclusive battle (October 23, 1642). Both sides were very indisciplined. Rupert could not yet control his fiery cavaliers, nor could Essex even completely command the Parliamentary foot. Oliver Cromwell fought in the battle, and was thoroughly disgusted with the exhibition of the Parliamentary army.

A week later (October 29) Charles entered Oxford, where the Colleges loyally placed themselves at his disposal. For the next three years the quadrangles were thronged with handsomely dressed cavaliers and their ladies. A regular system of fortifications was constructed round the old city—earthworks and ditches—some of which remain to this day. But first of all Charles tried to seize London by a bold dash. Shortly after taking up his quarters in Oxford, he led forth his army by the old road over Shotover and down into the Thames valley. Rupert and his horse scattered the advanced guards of the Parliament at Brentford (November 12). Charles should have pressed forward at all costs; but the City militia had come forth to Turnham Green, on the left bank of the Thames between Kew and Hammersmith. There were 20,000 Londoners, chiefly lusty young apprentices, who were ready enough to defend


ENGLAND
in the
Civil War
Autumn 1643
Districts held by Parl.
" " " King
Parl. strongholds in the
Kings Country=Plymouth
Edinburgh
Kilsyth
Falkirk
Dunbar
Dunse Law
Philiphaugh
Newcastle
Newburn
on Tyne
York
Marston
Moor
Hull
Preston
Lathom House
Manchester
Gainsborough
Chester
Rowton Heath
Nantwich
Winceby
Newark
Belvoir
Ashby
de-la-Zouch
Shrewsbury
Norwich
Birmingham
Naseby
Holmby
House
Worcester
Cropredy
Edge
Hill
Cambridge
Gloucester
Oxford
Chalgrove
Bristol
Lansdown
Roundway
Downs
LONDON
Reading
Brentford
Bath
Newbury
Basing House
Langport
Wardour
Cas.
Winchester
Taunton
Southampton
Lyme Regis
Exeter
Portsmouth
Corfe
Plymouth

London. Charles had no liking for such a fight, and on November 13 he turned back to Oxford. He was never to get so near to London again till he came as a captive.

The Campaign of 1643. For the next year a more elaborate plan was prepared by Charles, in order to get London; for the capital was his goal. The Earl of Newcastle, the great Royalist nobleman who had raised a foot-regiment of his own (the Whitecoats) in the North, was to break through the Eastern Counties (where Cromwell and the 'Eastern Association' had some well-trained forces), and so to come at London from the Essex side. Sir Ralph Hopton, the successful leader of the local armies of Devon and Cornwall, was to come up from the south-west, and get to London from the side of Surrey or Kent; and Charles was to come from Oxford down the Thames valley. This was the famous scheme for a 'triple advance' upon the capital; London was to be attacked by an army from every side. The army of Lord Newcastle was to occupy the northern bank of the Thames below London, while Hopton's troops occupied the southern bank. The combined forces would thus be able to stop the passage of ships up the river, and to starve out the city. This would neutralize the efforts of the Navy, which had joined the Parliamentary side, and had kept London open to the sea.

The converging campaign upon London was a failure. The Earl of Newcastle defeated Lord Fairfax and his son, near Bradford (June 1643), and secured most of Yorkshire (but not Hull) for the King. But Cromwell defeated the Royalist horse near Horncastle in Lincolnshire on October 11 (1643).

Rather earlier in the summer Hopton had got ready to make his advance upon London with the men of the

West. Rupert captured Bristol in July. In the previous month Hopton had taken Taunton, and in September Prince Maurice (the brother of Rupert) took Exeter. The Royalists, however, could not take Lyme Regis, Dartmouth, and Plymouth. This stopped their advance. The men of the West would not advance towards London, because the Parliamentary garrison of Plymouth would be free to come out against their homes.

PRINCE RUPERT.

Charles too had not a free hand. Bristol was his, but Gloucester, the key to the Severn valley, was still held by Parliament; and Charles felt that he must secure this before he would be free to advance on London. So on August 10 he pitched his camp in front of the ancient city; if it fell, the whole West of England would be the King's, and with this safely behind him and most of the North in his hands he would soon make short work of London. Thus the siege of Gloucester was the most critical event of the war.

Both sides strained to the utmost, the Royalists to gain and the Parliament to save the key to the West. The city was well defended by 'a soldier of fortune' named Colonel Massey. The Royalist army harried the country round about, and turned all the country people

against the King's cause. Then Parliament made a great appeal to the Londoners ; and the apprentices, who had never thought of going on a distant expedition, answered the call. The Earl of Essex led 15,000 men of the City trained bands across the Cotswolds to the Severn valley. The hills were bare and open, but the Severn valley itself, rich in orchard and farm, was all hedged and ditched, unsuitable for Rupert's cavalry. So Charles wisely did not risk a battle there. When Essex's army appeared on the Cotswold edge above Gloucester, Charles and his army were breaking up camp and burning their military works (September 5, 1643).

The King had one more chance, however. He had failed to take Gloucester, but he might yet win London itself, and so end the war. He made towards London, Essex and his apprentices following as best they could. They must have marched well, for on September 20 (1643), Charles found that he would have to meet them in battle. Among the fields by Newbury a hotly contested battle took place. The Londoners more than held their own ; Charles, after sleeping on the field, next morning broke up his camp and retired to Oxford. Gloucester and the West, London and the lower Thames valley, were now safe for the Parliamentary cause.

The Campaign of 1644. In the summer of 1643 the Roundheads made an alliance with the Scots, and so secured the help of their fine army.

In 1644 the Scottish army, led by officers like General Alexander Leslie, joined the Roundheads before York. York was defended by the Earl of Newcastle ; and Rupert brought a small army, mainly of horsemen out of the West, and over the hills from Lancashire, and relieved the city. Then the two forces faced each other

BOROUGH OF PADDINGTON ★ PUBLIC ★ LIBRARIES

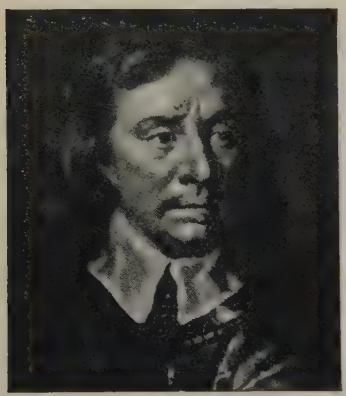
on the historic plain of York. On the Parliament side were about 25,000 men—including the Scots army and Cromwell's men of the Eastern Association. On the Royalist side Rupert and Newcastle had rather less than 20,000 men, but among them were the finest cavalry in England, and Rupert himself was one of the finest leaders. At Long Marston, eight miles west of York, the momentous battle was fought. The Royalist Colonel Goring with his cavalry swept Fairfax's men off the field; half the Scots in the centre broke and fled, but the other half remained constant and held their ground with the pike; while Cromwell, with the East Anglian cavalry on the left wing, actually drove Rupert's famous troopers off the field. Then he came round to the relief of the hard-pressed Scots, and turned what seemed a lost day into a brilliant victory (July 2, 1644).

The New Model Army. Marston Moor had won the North country for Parliament, but affairs were still critical. The King was strong, and the Roundhead forces, on the whole, badly led and badly organized. Charles, returning from his successful rush into Cornwall, where he captured Essex's army, might have been wholly cut off and destroyed at the second battle of Newbury (October 27, 1644), if the commander, the Earl of Manchester (Lord Kimbolton), had been more energetic.

Until this time there had been no regular Parliamentary army. Many of the soldiers had joined for one expedition only; many of them, becoming dissatisfied because they were not paid regularly, joined the forces of the enemy to better themselves.

The best generals, like Cromwell, saw that Parliament must have an army of its own, raised, paid, and completely controlled by the Government. They saw, too,

that able officers must be appointed. Fairfax was made commander-in-chief, and all the best of the various soldiers and ex-soldiers who had followed Essex or Manchester or the local associations were taken into direct Parliamentary pay. Over eight thousand recruits were required to make up the 20,000 required for the New Model Army. These were raised by pressing able-bodied men into the service. The New Model was not a voluntary force. It was to form a single properly trained army. Cromwell was appointed Lieutenant-General of the Horse.



OLIVER CROMWELL.

The Campaign of 1645. The effect was wonderful; the control exercised by one firm mind, the trained army, almost immediately made the Parliamentary cause triumph. Fairfax and Cromwell made for Charles's field army and offered battle. The King accepted the challenge at Naseby, in Northamptonshire (June 14, 1645). Prince Rupert's horse, as so often before, broke through the opposing wing of its opponents, and scattered it over the country. But the bulk of the Parliamentary army was left intact and was more than a match for the Royalist foot, which was ill trained and inferior in number, though it fought stoutly enough.

The battle of Naseby was nearly decisive. Charles's foot soldiers were broken and dispersed.

Charles had now nothing to hope for, unless his own people, the Scots, would have pity on him.

On May 5, 1646, having fled in disguise from Oxford, he rode to Newark, and surrendered himself to the Scottish army there; and on June 20 Oxford capitulated.

The last years of Charles I. The Scots were proud that their own king, of the house of Stuart, was also King of England. They had no desire to destroy the monarchy, but they set more store by their Presbyterian principles. At Newcastle (July 13, 1646), to which place they had removed the King, they joined with the English Parliament in proposing to restore Charles to power, if he would surrender control of the militia for twenty years, would 'be pleased to swear and sign the late Solemn League and Covenant', and would consent to a Bill 'for the utter abolishing and taking away of all Archbishops, Bishops, their Chancellors, &c.' Charles did not give his final answer until May 12, 1647, when he refused.

He delayed answering in the hope that the Scots and the Independents would quarrel with each other. On January 30, 1647, he was handed over by the Scots to the Parliament and lodged in Holmby House in Northamptonshire; and in these circumstances he felt compelled to give a straight answer.

Charles plotted with both sides, as well as with the Irish and the French, and this conduct at last convinced the Independents that there was no trusting him, and that death was the only remedy.

It was not long before the Independents gained complete mastery of affairs in England. Now that the King had been defeated, Parliament wished to disband the army, which was costing much money and keeping

taxes high. The army, on the other hand, vigorously protested against the proposal to disband them, and demanded first to receive their full pay, which was now greatly in arrear. In this contest the army was bound to win, for it had the greater force, and in Oliver Cromwell it had the most powerful man in the country. To Cromwell the greatest credit is due for having put an end to the mutinies in the army, and for preventing the unpaid soldiers from overturning all government and order.

On June 3, 1647, a troop of horse under Cornet George Joyce, acting under instructions from Cromwell, carried the King away from Holmby House to the army headquarters at Newmarket; thence he was taken to Hampton Court. In November he escaped to the Isle of Wight, where he gave himself up to the garrison of Carisbrooke Castle. It was while he was there that the Second Civil War took place. This was a Royalist rising in England, and a brief war between the Scots and the Parliament (1648).

After these events Cromwell determined that they would no longer be troubled by the Presbyterian majority in Parliament or by the King. On December 6, 1648, Colonel Thomas Pride, who was in command of the guard in the Lobby of the House, was given a list of the Presbyterian members; and as each one of these approached the door to enter, he was turned back, and, if he resisted, was made a prisoner. Altogether 130 members were excluded by *Pride's Purge*. After this, events marched quickly; the House of Commons, announcing that they represented the people of England and therefore held the supreme power, established a High Court of Justice to try King Charles for treason.

From Carisbrooke Charles had been removed in December to Hurst Castle, a lonely blockhouse on the Solent; in the same month he was taken to Windsor Castle, and in January 1649 to St. James's Palace. The trial of the King began on January 19 in Westminster Hall; the Court numbered sixty-seven members. The King was accused of high treason for having 'maliciously

WESTMINSTER HALL

levied war against the present Parliament, and the people therein represented'. On January 27, in the presence of the King, the death sentence was read by John Bradshaw, the President of the Court.

On January 29 Charles took leave of his children, and on January 30 prepared for death. Sir Thomas Herbert accompanied him throughout the last months of his life; on the morning of the 30th, the King said: 'Herbert,

this is my second marriage-day. I would be as trim as may be; for before night I hope to be espoused to my blessed Jesus.' Then he asked for a shirt of more than ordinary thickness: 'Let me have a shirt more than ordinary, by reason the season is so sharp as probably may make me shake, which some observers may imagine proceeds from fear. I would have no such imputation; I fear not death. Death is not terrible to me: I bless my God I am prepared.' Bishop Juxon read him the morning service; and then, accompanied by Colonel Tomlinson, one of Cromwell's soldiers, by Juxon, and followed by Herbert, the King walked between a double row of soldiers across St. James's Park to Whitehall. There he was allowed to rest a while. He took a glass of wine and ate a piece of bread. Afterwards he mounted the scaffold placed before the Banqueting Hall, and in front of a silent crowd declared to Bishop Juxon that he forgave his enemies. He laid his head on the block, and made the agreed sign. With one blow the executioner struck off the King's head, and then holding it aloft pronounced the regular formula: 'Behold the head of a traitor.' On February 8 the body was buried in St. George's Chapel at Windsor.

His portrait shows a man of a noble countenance, with a dignified and serious, though somewhat proud expression. He died at the age of 49, in perfect health, and in the prime of life. Clarendon's concluding words on his master's character give the best estimate:

'To conclude, he was the worthiest gentleman, the best master, the best friend, the best husband, the best father, and the best Christian that the age in which he lived produced. And if he were not the best king, if he were without some parts and qualities which have made

some kings great and happy, no other prince was ever unhappy who was possessed of half his virtues and endowments and so much without any kind of vice.' [1]

The Commonwealth. At the death of Charles England was ruled by what was left of the Long Parliament and by the Army. The House of Commons now consisted only of fifty-six Independent members, known as the Rump. These claimed to represent all England, and to have the whole government of the country in their hands.

The wars arising out of the Great Rebellion. The Scots had not all fought on the side of Parliament. Throughout the year 1645 James Graham, Marquis of Montrose, had been fighting for Charles with brilliant success in the Highlands of Scotland. The loyal and martial Highlanders fought for him with the same bravery with which they fought, a hundred years later, for Prince Charles. Sir Walter Scott, in the novels *The Legend of Montrose* and *Waverley*, has described, as no one else can, each of these great events in the history of the Highlands, the wars of 1645 and 1745. Montrose was at last overcome by General David Leslie, at Philiphaugh, in Selkirkshire (September 13, 1645).

In 1648 the Scottish Presbyterian army entered England again, this time in favour of King Charles, for they now regretted that they had handed him over to Parliament. They were met by Cromwell and the New Model Army at Preston and Wigan, and after a running fight were dispersed. At the same time a revolt against the Parliament broke out in Sussex, Kent, and Essex; and part of the Fleet seceded to the King's side. But Fairfax beat the Kentish insurgents at Maidstone, and when they crossed the river shut them up in Colchester, till

[1] Clarendon, *History of the Rebellion.*

they surrendered through starvation. So ended the *Second Civil War.*

After the execution of Charles, the fury of the Scots, who were themselves so largely responsible for it, broke out again in war. They had the young Charles (afterwards Charles II) in their hands, and him they made a 'covenanted king', a king, that is to say, who should rule on condition of maintaining the National Covenant for preserving the Presbyterian Church. This drew down upon them once more Cromwell and his invincible 'Ironsides'. He occupied Edinburgh, and then won a lucky victory at Dunbar (September 3, 1650). The war was not over, however, for Charles and the Scots were able to invade England next year, when Cromwell obtained his 'crowning mercy' at the battle of Worcester (September 3, 1651).

The Irish War. This second war with Scotland had called Cromwell away from Ireland; it was there that the Commonwealth system was in greatest danger. Ulster, which was largely peopled by Presbyterians, was the home of industry, and of loyalty to the British Crown.

In 1641 a terrible rebellion broke out, the Catholics aiming at throwing off the English government. Protestants were massacred; their land was laid waste. In 1649 Cromwell resolved that, at any cost, the fearful struggle must be stopped. He crossed St. George's Channel with a small but perfectly trained army. The Irish, though they would not submit, could not hold out. Drogheda and Wexford were stormed, and the garrisons slaughtered.

When Cromwell was summoned back to England by the Scottish War, the conquest of Ireland was partly achieved. It was completed by his son-in-law, Ireton, and by Ludlow.

When the war was over, the Irish landowners who had fought against the Parliament had their lands taken from them. They themselves were driven to live beyond the Shannon in Connaught, and their estates were given to English soldiers and other Puritan settlers.

The task of the Commonwealth. The wars were now, for a time, ended, and the task of the Commonwealth Government was to settle the State upon a sound and lasting basis.

In 1653 the old Long Parliament, now reduced to 56 members, was still sitting. On April 20 Cromwell entered Westminster Hall and dispersed it. It was an act of sheer force, but the Rump had to submit. A new constitution was drawn up by the chief officers of the army.

By this constitution, the 'Instrument of Government', Great Britain and Ireland were established as one Commonwealth, 'the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the dominions thereto belonging'. The Government was to consist of one person, called the Lord Protector, and the members of Parliament. This Parliament was to have one chamber only, the House of Lords having been abolished in 1649. To Parliament there were to be sent 30 members from Scotland, 30 from Ireland, 375 from England, and 25 from Wales.

Under Cromwell and his officers the people were free to worship as they wished, so long as they did not have bishops over them.

The foreign policy of the Protectorate. The Commonwealth, under Oliver Cromwell, soon made the name of England respected upon the Continent. In 1652–4 a successful naval war had been fought with the Dutch.

It was in this war that Robert Blake, then 53 years old, first went to sea, and became one of England's best admirals. A few years later a blow was struck at the Spanish Empire, to make it allow to British sailors freedom of worship and freedom of trade. When Cromwell made these two demands from the Spanish Ambassador, in 1655, the latter smartly replied that to ask these was to ask for ' his master's two eyes '. The short war that followed was waged in alliance with France. The island of Jamaica was taken by Admiral William Penn, and made a British colony.

Under the Protectorate the Fleet grew in number of ships and men, and from this time has a great place in the national history. Robert Blake was the greatest ' sea-general ' of the Commonwealth. He died in July 1657 at sea after his victory over the Spanish fleet off Santa Cruz, in the island of Teneriffe.

On land the Commonwealth was no less successful. Six thousand ' Ironsides ', under General Lockhart, assisted the French at the Battle of the Dunes (June 4, 1658). The Spanish army was defeated, Dunkirk captured, and made an English fortress.

The death of the Protector. At home the task of government was proving almost too difficult, even for the strong-willed, sensible Cromwell. This plain country gentleman, fond of his book, his horse, and his pipe, had become first a brilliant leader of cavalry, next a general, commanding whole armies, finally he had become ruler of the British Empire. In an age when the spectre of anarchy and destruction stalked through the land he had given peace and order at home, and had secured the freedom of the seas for a thriving English shipping.

Oliver Cromwell died in Whitehall Palace on Septem-

ber 3, 1658. He was 59 years old. The 3rd of September was the anniversary of his 'crowning mercies', the victories of Dunbar and Worcester.

The end of the Protectorate. In 1657 Parliament decided that there should be a Second Chamber of 'Lords', and that Cromwell should have the right of naming his successor.

Oliver nominated his eldest son Richard to succeed him; but Richard, though quite an honest, sensible man, was not strong enough for the work that had been almost too much for the powerful spirit of his father.

After nine months of troubled rule Richard resigned his charge, retired to the Continent, and lived at Paris, returning to England about 1680, where he lived the quiet and useful life of a country gentleman till he died in the reign of Queen Anne, in 1712, at the age of 86.

At the time of Richard's resignation, the Cromwellian army, numbering about 20,000, was still in being. The army chiefs, however, did not know how to govern, and so were compelled to recall the survivors of the Long Parliament, the old Rump. Quarrels between it and the army soon arose. Finally, General George Monk, a strong, level-headed man, saw that the nation wanted the old government of the monarchy. He was commander of the Commonwealth soldiers in Scotland. With 7,000 men he set out on the march for England, and crossed the border on January 1, 1660. On February 3 he entered London, after a march of 400 miles.

Meanwhile Charles II was watching the course of events from Breda, in the United Netherlands. His experienced counsellor, the historian Edward Hyde (created Earl of Clarendon in 1661), was with him, and drafted a Declaration to the English people (April 4, 1660).

In this Declaration Charles II promised ' a liberty to tender consciences ', and ' all arrears due to the officers and soldiers of the army '. Those two things quieted the minds of the people, who on May 25, 1660, welcomed the landing of their king at Dover with every demonstration of joy.

CHAPTER XIX

THE LAST TWO STUART KINGS

Charles II. The new king was only thirty years old at his accession in 1660. Like most of his family, he was a man of considerable ability, and with him England entered upon a period of settled government that has never since been seriously disturbed. Monk, the resolute quiet soldier, had been, as was said at the time, victor without bloodshed.

King Charles became a well-known figure in London. There the citizens often saw him taking exercise alone, striding along in St. James's Park, accompanied by his spaniels, and throwing crumbs to the ducks in the pond. The English, who were a very difficult people to rule at that time, grew to like him.

The Earl of Clarendon. Edward Hyde, who had been a minister of Charles I, was made Lord Chancellor by Charles II and in this position he was afterwards known as Earl of Clarendon. Under his wise guidance the Restoration Settlement was made almost without friction. There were many Cavaliers who had sacrificed all in the cause of Charles I, and who expected compensation at the expense of their enemies. But an Act was passed, pardoning all except those who had signed

Charles I's death-warrant; and most of these had either fled abroad, or died before the Restoration. In all, thirteen Regicides were executed.

The growth of Nonconformity. Clarendon stood for Church and State. It was necessary, in his view, in order to have a strong and united people, that Church and State should be at one. There was, if possible, to be no dissent. The Church of England was to be made wide enough to include all.

CHARLES II

In 1662 the Parliament passed an Act of Uniformity. By this Act all the clergy were called upon to use the Book of Common Prayer. They were also compelled to hold services, morning and evening, on every Lord's day, and on other days appointed. About 2,000 clergy refused to conform to the Act, and thus became Nonconformists.

The Clarendon Code. The Act of Uniformity was followed by a series of Acts which made it still more difficult for any one who would not conform exactly to the Book of Common Prayer to remain within the Church of England. These Acts, having been passed while Lord Clarendon was Chancellor, have been called the 'Clarendon Code'.

The *Licensing Act* (1662) provided that no book

should be printed except with the authority of the Government.

Every one was to promise never to resist the King's authority; no books could be printed if the Government disliked the ideas expressed in them; no religious meeting (except a Church of England meeting) of more than five persons could take place (*Conventicle Act*, 1664); finally, the *Five Mile Act* (1665) ordered that all men who preached at any religious meeting that was not strictly according to the Church of England should be excluded from every corporate town (that is, a town that sent members to Parliament); in fact, they were not to be allowed to come within five miles of such a town 'unless only in passing upon the road'.

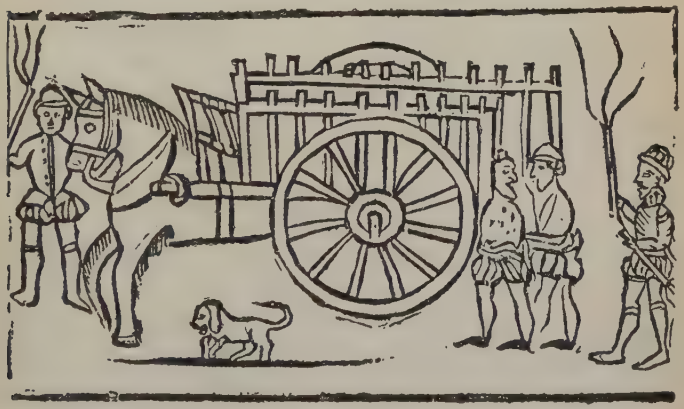
Vagrancy and the Poor Law. During Elizabeth's reign the following Act had been passed in 1598.

'Every person which is by this present Act declared to be a rogue, vagabond, or sturdy beggar, which shall be taken begging, vagrant, or misordering themselves, shall upon their apprehension be stripped naked from the middle upwards, and shall be openly whipped until his or her body be bloody, and shall be forthwith sent from parish to parish, the next straight way to the parish where he was born . . . there to put himself to labour as a true subject ought to do.'

In 1662 this was re-enacted in a more severe form.

The Dutch Wars. Under Charles II England prospered. The furs, the sugar, the tobacco, the coffee of the New World were freely carried across the sea to England, and life was made more cheerful. Great gains were made in commerce; the East India Company, which had been established (1600) towards the end of Elizabeth's reign, at last began to earn good profits. But when our traders began to push their way to more distant parts they

found the Dutch already established. This hardy, frugal people had won their independence from Spain by the year 1609, and from that time their slow, well-filled ships sailed every sea. It was natural to all Dutchmen to save money, so that, although their country was not rich by nature, there was always capital to be found to send ships and traders to the East and to the West, and well-stocked warehouses arose among the swamps and



WHIPPING VAGABONDS AT THE CART'S TAIL

forests of almost unknown rivers, the Hooghly, the Hudson, the Orinoco.

These were the days when commerce was not free; when no nation welcomed the trade of another, or believed that the exchange of goods and services enriched both sides and increased the enjoyment of the world. The Long Parliament had decided that the Dutch should not carry goods to English ports; and so, chiefly for naval reasons, to encourage English shipping, they passed the Navigation Act of 1651. The Act provided

that goods should only be brought to England in English ships or the ships of the country which had produced the goods. The Dutch objected to this, and a war ensued, which was terminated, on the whole, in favour of England in 1654. After the Restoration the Navigation Act (1660) was passed again, with the addition that the Colonies must import goods from England only, and that their chief products must be exported only to England or to other English Colonies.

Once more, as in the time of the Protectorate, war broke out between the Dutch and English. It was a war for the mastery of the seas, for if the Dutch could not trade with England or the English Colonies, they would be cut off from half the New World, and their shipping would decay. On both sides it was a war heroically fought, for each nation was as it were upon its natural element, and showed its finest qualities. The great de Ruyter had always been a sailor, and under him the Dutch seamanship was, on the whole, superior to the English. Each side boldly sought out the other, to meet it in decisive battle. On June 3, 1665, the English fleet under the Duke of York met the Dutch off Lowestoft and gained a great victory.

The Duke of York, brother of Charles II, afterwards King James II, was Lord High Admiral at this time. He was a careful official, diligent in his duties, both in the Admiralty offices in Whitehall and on the sea.

The year previous to the battle of Lowestoft the English Government sent an expedition against the enemy's colonies; New Amsterdam, the old Dutch settlement on the Hudson River, was captured and renamed New York.

The condition of the Navy. All did not go so well,

however, throughout the whole war. The Navy was brave and enthusiastic, although a large proportion of the officers were landsmen, appointed by Court influence. On shore, in the dockyards, things were not well managed. Parliament voted money for the Fleet, but much of this money was never spent on ships. Some of it Charles spent on his favourites.

Dockyard officials made money off the timber and stores. Captains made money by drawing pay for seamen who, long since dead, were still borne upon the books of the ship.

Thus England was in danger. And meanwhile, the sailors who fought so heroically lacked their pay, and their women and children were often in the greatest misery.

After the Dutch Wars it was a common sight to see wounded sailors having to beg their bread in the streets of London.

The Dutch in the Medway. If all the money which the nation voted for the Fleet had been honestly spent upon ships, the Navy could have been properly maintained. As things stood, however, supplies ran short. In 1667 the Government decided to pay off many of the sailors, and to lay up their ships. The great Admiral de Ruyter saw his chance. Suddenly appearing off the Thames estuary, he sailed his fleet up to the Medway. The Government was caught unprepared. Orders were given to sink ships in Barking Creek, to stop the Dutch from coming up higher. The booming of the Dutch guns was heard in London. The capital was blockaded, and the coal ships from Newcastle could not arrive.

London did not fall, but the blockade of the Thames was maintained by the Dutch until the Peace of Breda

(July 31, 1667). Charles was acting in league with Louis XIV, who was at this time attacking the Dutch on land, but the English Parliament was too sensible to stand

MODEL OF A DUTCH WARSHIP

by and see France overrun both the Spanish Netherlands and Holland. Accordingly, in January 1668, they actually insisted on offering an alliance to the Dutch. This was the famous Triple Alliance of England, Holland, and Sweden, which caused the withdrawal

of Louis from the territory he had conquered in the Low Countries.

The Second Dutch War. King Charles, however, seemed bent on destroying the Dutch, and on June 1, 1670, the Secret Treaty of Dover was signed with France. Charles's ministers at this time were the notorious 'Cabal'—Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, Lauderdale. Clarendon had been impeached in 1667, and had to fly to France, where he employed his time in completing his great *History of the Rebellion.*

The Secret Treaty said that Charles should again engage England in war with the Dutch, while Louis attacked them by land. In order that he should be fairly independent of Parliament, Charles was to receive £300,000 from Louis. He was also to get an extra £200,000 if he declared himself publicly to be a Roman Catholic.

The King then made war upon the Dutch, and managed to get Parliament to vote supplies for it; and on June 7, 1672, an Anglo-French fleet under the Duke of York fought a great battle with the Dutch fleet under Admiral de Ruyter, off Southwold (or Sole) Bay. The action was broken off at night, and fog prevented it being renewed next day.

The Dutch, almost overwhelmed by a French army, cut the dikes and flooded their country, and at the same time carried on a not unsuccessful naval war against England. Gradually the public came to realize that France, not Holland, was the danger to England, and that the victory of Louis would mean the restoration of the Pope's authority in this country. In February 1674 Parliament insisted on peace being made with the Dutch, who thus freed from sea fighting were able, in alliance with Austria, to deal with the French armies.

Henceforward there was no more war for over a hundred years with Holland.

The Plague and the Great Fire. In August and September 1665 the Plague had visited England, and London especially suffered from this fearful scourge. The streets were narrow and the houses close together. In their little back-gardens the citizens had their wells of water, which had got contaminated. All who could went out of the town. Charles went to Salisbury, and afterwards to Oxford, though he was not afraid to come up to the City to see how things were going on. In one

GRAVES OF PLAGUE VICTIMS AT EYAM, DERBYSHIRE

parish alone, Pepys says, as many as 40 died in one night. The Admiralty removed to Greenwich, for the Dutch War was still going on, and business must be attended to. Physicians themselves caught the disease and died. Gradually, however, the plague worked itself out, and finally the germs of it were cleared away by the Great Fire, which occurred in September 1666. Large parts of London were destroyed, along with the splendid cathedral, Old St. Paul's. The fire began on September 2 (Sunday) and burned till the 6th. Pepys witnessed the state of affairs and describes it in his diary :

'So down, with my heart full of trouble, to the Lieutenant of the Tower, who tells me that it began this morning in the King's baker's house in Pudding Lane,

and that it hath burned down St. Magnus's Church and most part of Fish Street already. So I down to the water-side, and there got a boat, and through bridge, and there saw a lamentable fire. Poor Michell's house,

LONDON BRIDGE, 1616

as far as the Old Swan, already burned that way, and the fire running further, that, in a very little time, it got as far as the Steele-yard, while I was there. Every body endeavouring to remove their goods, and flinging into the river, and bringing them into lighters that lay

off; poor people staying in their houses as long as till the very fire touched them, and then running into boats or clambering from one pair of steps, by the water-side, to another. And, among other things, the poor pigeons, I perceive, were loth to leave their houses, but hovered about the windows and balconys, till they burned their wings and fell down. Having staid, and in an hour's time seen the fire rage every way; and nobody to my sight endeavouring to quench it, but to remove their goods and leave all to the fire; and having seen it get as far as the Steele-yard, and the wind mighty high, and driving it into the City; and everything after so long a drought, proving combustible, even the very stones of churches; I to White Hall, with a gentleman with me, and word was carried in to the King. So I was called for, and did tell the King and Duke of York what I saw; and that, unless his Majesty did command houses to be pulled down, nothing could stop the fire. They seemed much troubled, and the King commanded me to go to my Lord Mayor from him, and command him to spare no houses but to pull down before the fire every way. The Duke of York bid me tell him, that if he would have any more soldiers, he shall; and so did my Lord Arlington afterwards as a great secret. Here meeting with Captain Cocke, I in his coach which he lent me, and Creed with me to Paul's; and then walked along Watling St., as well as I could, every creature coming away laden with goods to save, and here and there, sick people carried away in beds. Extraordinary good goods carried in carts and on backs. At last met my Lord Mayor in Canning Street, like a man spent, with a handkercher about his neck. To the King's message he cried like a fainting woman, "Lord, what can I do? I am spent: people will not obey me. I have been pulling down houses; but the fire overtakes us faster than we can do it."'

The fire ruined many people, and caused great distress among the poor. It is a proof, however, of the real

prosperity of the country at this time that the City was rebuilt again so quickly, and in such a substantial way. It was the Great Fire which gave Sir Christopher Wren

A typical London Court of the time. Green Arbor Court, off Fleet Street, pulled down about 1829

the opportunity of building the new St. Paul's Cathedral and other splendid City churches which still remain to attest his genius.

The Popish Plot. That part of the Secret Treaty of Dover which engaged Charles to declare himself a Roman

Catholic had not been communicated to all five members of the Cabal ministry. The ambitious and daring Ashley—later made Earl of Shaftesbury—on discovering that he had not been shown the whole treaty, at once raised an opposition party in Parliament to oppose the King.

Religious feeling ran very high in the country. The wildest stories were believed. It was said that Catholics had made the Great Fire of London. In 1678 Titus Oates, a clergyman of the Church of England, but a man of bad character, came forward with a story of a 'Popish Plot'. England was to be given up to the Jesuits, the statesmen and chief clergy murdered, the King poisoned. The story was believed for a time and 'the gaols were filled with Papists'. Shaftesbury took advantage of this excitement to introduce the Exclusion Bill.

The Exclusion Bill. In January 1679 Charles II dissolved his 'Long Parliament', which had existed for seventeen years. The General Election that followed returned members to Parliament ready to take measures against the Catholics. Shaftesbury proposed a Bill to exclude the Duke of York from the throne, and to put in his place the Duke of Monmouth, one of Charles's illegitimate sons. Monmouth was a popular man and a good soldier. The Exclusion Bill passed the House of Commons in 1680, but was rejected in the Lords. The King dissolved Parliament, a General Election was held, and Charles's third and last Parliament was summoned to meet at Oxford. Shaftesbury's 'Country Party', who were then beginning to be called Whigs, came up determined to limit the power of the Crown. The 'Court Party', beginning to be called Tories, were in great numbers too, ready to uphold the sacred rights

of the King. Once more the Exclusion Bill was read in the Commons, but Charles appeared in Christ Church Hall, where the Lords were sitting, and dissolved the Parliament (March 1681), and for the rest of his reign ruled alone. The succession of the Duke of York was saved. Shaftesbury fled to Holland, where he died in 1683.

Death of Charles II. At the age of fifty-five Charles showed signs of failing health. He was a genial, merry man, and therefore popular with the people. He was careful of his health, taking regular exercise, either by playing tennis in a great covered court, or, in his later years, by walking. Charles died, February 6, 1685. His wife, Catharine of Braganza, survived for twenty years.

Among the many things in which King Charles took an interest was the Army. His regiments were the 1st and 2nd Life Guards, recruited from Cavaliers; the Royal Horse Guards, recruited from Roundheads; the Grenadier Guards (Cavaliers), the Coldstream Guards (Roundheads); the Queen's (Royal West Surrey) Regiment, and the 1st Dragoons. All these troops were well equipped and well paid. The Guards received five shillings a day, but no quarters were provided. They lived in the inns and lodging-houses around Whitehall.

James II. Charles was quietly succeeded on the throne by his brother James. The new king was a good worker. In dealing with the Army and Navy he was wise.

On the other hand, there was a strain of hardness and cruelty in his character.

In the three years of his reign two distinct designs can be traced: one, to rule as an absolute monarch, the other, to re-establish the Roman Catholic Church in England.

Monmouth's Rebellion. James had been on the throne only four months when the Duke of Monmouth started a rebellion in the south-west of England. Monmouth had been in Holland, collecting a small force of refugee dissenters. On June 11 his small squadron appeared off Lyme Regis in Dorset. The Duke landed, was well received by the townspeople, and then marched into Somersetshire. As he proceeded, his force grew till it numbered about 5,000 men. At Taunton he declared

JAMES II MARY OF MODENA

himself King, but before he had proceeded much farther he was met by the royal troops on Sedgemoor on July 6, 1685. His force of country people was scattered. Monmouth himself was captured a few days later, and suffered execution for high treason.

The Bloody Assizes. The people as a whole did not support the rebellion. If James had used his easy victory with mercy, he might have become a popular and respected monarch. Instead, however, he sent the Chief Justice, Jeffreys, to the scene of the rebellion. Jeffreys was known as the most brutal and foul-mouthed lawyer who had ever disgraced an English court. As

a result of the courts, 'the Bloody Assizes', which he held at Winchester, Dorchester, Exeter, and elsewhere, 324 people were executed, and 841 sentenced to be transported as slaves to the West Indies. Jeffreys boasted that he had in this one visit to the south-western counties hanged more traitors than all the judges had done since the Norman Conquest. Those who were transported as slaves were bought by the West Indian planters. The purchase-money went to courtiers, who had received grants of the slaves from the King. After all expenses had been paid, it was calculated that each prisoner was worth £10 to £15 each. James's queen, Mary of Modena, had got 100 of the convicted rebels granted to her, and is believed to have made £1,000 in disposing of them.

James's power. James II was now at the height of his power. He had successfully quelled a rebellion. He had secured an income of £1,900,000 from Parliament. He had a standing army of about 20,000 men. His strength seems to have tempted him to go farther, and, being a Catholic himself, to give the Catholics the chief places in the kingdom. This rash act was to cost him his throne.

The last acts. In 1687 a series of acts took place, so unjust that even the most staunch of Tories felt that James must go.

In April 1687 James, without consulting Parliament, had issued a 'Declaration of Indulgence', relieving all who did not conform to the Church of England from the penalties of the law. In April 1688 a second Declaration of Indulgence was issued, and ordered to be read in all the churches. Seven bishops, headed by Dr. Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, drew up a petition to the King, asking that the clergy might be excused from reading the Declaration (which was quite illegal) in

public. James actually had the bishops tried in West minster Hall, on the plea that their petition was seditiou and inciting to rebellion. Much to the delight of th people, the bishops were found not guilty.

The birth of the Prince. James's first wife, Ann Hyde (daughter of the Earl of Clarendon), had died i 1671, leaving two daughters, Mary, who married Willia III of Orange (1677), and Anne, who married Georg Prince of Denmark (1683). James's second wife wa Mary of Modena, whom he married in 1673. He ha five children by her who died in infancy. James ha thus no son, and both his daughters were Protestant The whole country detested his rule, but were willing t wait till he died, when Mary, the elder daughter, woul succeed him. On June 10, 1688, however, the nation wa startled to know that a son had been born to King Jam and his queen. There was now no longer any chance o a peaceful Protestant succession. When William o Orange heard of the event, he exclaimed, 'Now or never he must act, or for ever be excluded from England.

The Invitation from England. At the same time, seve English gentlemen took upon themselves the responsi bility of sending an invitation to William of Orange an his wife Mary. The invitation was accepted by William

On November 2, 1688, William, with a small Dutch fleet, set sail. On November 5 he landed at Torbay, an marched to Exeter. James had gone with his troops t Salisbury, but there most of his army melted away Among others, his chief officer, Lieutenant-Genera Churchill (afterwards Duke of Marlborough) went ove to the Prince of Orange. The Prince proceeded t Salisbury, and from there to London, where he arrive on December 19. King James had been captured a few

days previously, but William had no desire to keep him. James was allowed on December 23 to escape to France, where he spent the rest of his life. A Parliament called the Convention (because it was not summoned by a king) met on January 22, 1689.

On February 13 William and Mary were declared sovereigns.

Growth of the Empire. All the English colonies of the seventeenth century were founded and became flourishing through private enterprise, but for the greater number (though not for all) the support of the Crown was of great value. In 1607 Virginia was founded by Royal Charter. In 1620 the colony of Massachusetts began; but here the Crown could claim none of the credit. In 1633 Charles I gave a grant of land in the southern half of North America to Lord Baltimore; this colony became known as Maryland. Next year, 1634, Connecticut was founded by some of the inhabitants of Massachusetts, and two years later the colony of Rhode Island was started, in the same manner; and in 1641 came the foundation of New Hampshire (from Massachusetts). The contribution of the Commonwealth to the British Colonial Empire was Jamaica, in 1655. Carolina was founded by charter from Charles II in 1663 (it was not divided into two colonies—North and South Carolina—till sixty-six years later). The First Dutch War brought three more American colonies under the British flag—Delaware, New York, and New Jersey, all in the year 1664. In 1670 Prince Rupert founded the Hudson's Bay Company, which afterwards ruled a large province in Canada. Finally, in 1682 the Quaker, William Penn, son of the admiral, obtained a grant of land in North America from Charles II, and went out

there himself and founded Pennsylvania. Thus all the North American colonies, except Georgia (1732), were established under the Stuarts.

CHAPTER XX

WILLIAM AND MARY; QUEEN ANNE

Foreign policy after 1688. William of Orange was determined to save Holland from France, and he employed the whole power of England in the struggle. Gradually the greater number of Englishmen also adopted the King's view. They came to believe that the free existence of England depended upon keeping France out of the great ports of Antwerp and Rotterdam. Therefore the reigns of William III and Anne in foreign policy are the story of a struggle to defeat the designs of Louis XIV against the Dutch.

WILLIAM AND MARY

Constitutional progress. Internally, the history of the country is a record of solid progress in every direction. The Bill of Rights, passed in 1689, declared that the sovereign must be a Protestant, and must never marry a Roman Catholic. The Coronation Oath Act (1689) reinforced this, by providing that the King must swear to be faithful to the 'Protestant Reformed Religion established by law'.

Under Charles II and James II soldiers who had offended had been tried by ordinary magistrates. In William's reign proper military courts were set up by the passing of the Mutiny Act, 1689. In 1694 a Triennial Act was passed limiting the duration of any one Parliament to three years, at the end of which time a General

CIVIL COSTUME OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY

Election must be held. Thus there was no longer the possibility of a king's keeping the same Parliament for seventeen years, as Charles II did. In 1716 the possible duration of each Parliament was extended to a period of seven years (Septennial Act), and in 1911 it was again reduced to five years (Parliament Act). But in the Great War a British Parliament, which was due to dissolve in 1915, was continued in existence by special

Acts till the end of the year 1918. The Triennial Act of 1694 also said that a Parliament should be held at least once in three years.

The principle of our government is that those who are qualified to vote elect the Members of Parliament, and that the ministers of the King are chosen out of these members. As a rule, since 1688 at least, the bulk of the Members of Parliament have taken sides, and arranged themselves in two parties, called Whig or Tory, Liberal or Conservative. This system is good for Parliament. But it would not do for a Ministry, or a 'Cabinet', as the Ministry has come to be called. If the Cabinet, like the Parliament, consisted of two parties, one party would always check the other, and united action would be impossible. It is therefore necessary that the Cabinet should consist of ministers who are members of the *same* party. In this way the ministers of the day can quickly agree what to do; and if they have a majority in Parliament they can get their measures agreed to there.

If they have not a majority in Parliament, a general election must be held, to see what the country really wants.

This system, known as 'Cabinet Government', was beginning under William III; it grew further under Queen Anne, and became established under George I.

Scotland and Ireland. In Scotland and Ireland the Revolution Settlement was seriously resisted. John Graham of Claverhouse, Viscount Dundee, raised a body of Highlanders to support the cause of James, but he was killed in battle with William's soldiers at the Pass of Killiecrankie in Perthshire (July 1689). At the same time the Irish had refused to join in the English Revolution; James II went over from France to Ireland to put

himself at the head of the Catholic Irish. In the north the towns of Londonderry and Enniskillen were held by Protestant Irish, and after a long siege were relieved by William's forces. The relief of Londonderry (July 30, 1689) is described by Lord Macaulay in a classic passage :

' It was the 30th of July. The sun had just set : the evening sermon in the Cathedral was over ; and the heartbroken congregation had separated, when the sentinels on the tower saw the sails of three vessels coming up the Foyle. Soon there was a stir in the Irish camp. The besiegers were on the alert for miles along both shores. The ships were in extreme peril : for the river was low ; and the only navigable channel ran very near to the left bank, where the head-quarters of the enemy had been fixed and where the batteries were most numerous. Leake performed his duty with a skill and spirit worthy of his noble profession, exposed his frigate to cover the merchantmen, and used his guns with great effect. At length the little squadron came to the place of peril. Then the *Mountjoy* took the lead and went right at the boom. The huge barricade cracked and gave way : but the shock was such that the *Mountjoy* rebounded, and stuck in the mud. A yell of triumph rose from the banks : the Irish rushed to their boats and were preparing to board ; but the *Dartmouth* poured on them a well directed broadside, which threw them into disorder. Just then the *Phœnix* dashed at the breach which the *Mountjoy* had made and was in a moment within the fence. Meantime the tide was rising fast. The *Mountjoy* began to move, and soon passed through the broken stakes and floating spars. But her brave master was no more. A shot from one of the batteries had struck him ; and he died by the most enviable of all deaths, in sight of the city which was his birth-place, which was his home, and which had just been saved by his courage and self-devotion from the most frightful form of destruction. The night had closed in before the conflict at the boom began ; but the flash of the guns

was seen and the noise heard, by the lean and ghastly multitude which covered the walls of the city. . . Even after the barricade had been passed there was a terrible half-hour of suspense. It was ten o'clock before the ships arrived at the quay : the whole population was there to welcome them. A screen made of casks filled with earth was hastily thrown up to protect the landing place from the batteries on the other side of the river and then the work of unloading began. First were rolled on shore barrels containing six thousand bushels of meal. Then came great cheeses, casks of beef, flitches of bacon, kegs of butter, sacks of pease and biscuits, ankers of brandy. Not many hours before, half a pound of tallow and three quarters of a pound of salted hide had been weighed out with niggardly care to every fighting man . . . The bonfires shone bright along the whole circuit of the ramparts. The Irish guns continued to roar all night ; and all night the bells of the rescued city made answer to the Irish guns with a peal of joyous defiance. Through the whole of the 31st of July the batteries of the enemy continued to play. But soon after the sun had again gone down, flames were seen arising from the camp ; and when the first of August dawned, a line of smoking ruins marked the site lately occupied by the huts of the besiegers ; and the citizens saw afar off the long column of pikes and standards retreating up the left bank of the Foyle towards Strabane.'

Aided by the French, the Irish maintained the struggle for two years more. On July 1 (1690) William defeated James's army at the Battle of the Boyne, near Drogheda. On October 3, 1691, Limerick capitulated to General Ginkel, one of William's Dutchmen. The Irish soldiers of the garrison were allowed to go to France, to enlist under the French Crown.

The French Wars. When William became King of England, Holland and the German states were at war against Louis XIV of France. Holland was chiefly

interested in the 'Spanish Netherlands'. These consisted of the provinces which now make up the kingdom of Belgium. In the seventeenth century they were still under Spain. Towards the end of the seventeenth century the Spanish power had become very slight, and when Louis XIV set out to annex part of the Spanish Netherlands, Spain could not resist. Holland, however, and, under William III, England made war against France. Antwerp was the port of the Spanish Netherlands. It was believed that if a great naval and military power like France held Antwerp, England and Holland would never for a moment be safe. Certainly if Louis XIV had defeated William III the Revolution Settlement would have been undone, and James II would have been restored. Therefore this war has been called *the War of the English Succession.*

LOUIS XIV

The campaign. From 1689 till 1697 England, along with Holland and the German states, was fighting France. The Low Countries—Belgium—were the scene of the fighting, for it was the grand object of William to expel the French from thence. The King himself commanded the British army abroad, for indeed he was the

only man in England who was whole-heartedly for the war. The people did not realize how important for them was the question of Belgium and the port of Antwerp.

France was getting exhausted, England was feeling the strain too. The Bank of England was established by royal charter, in 1694, to obtain money for carrying on the war. The English, however, grew impatient,

for it takes a long time for a country to bleed to death; at the end of eight years of warfare France was still fighting vigorously, while the national debt of England was growing ever higher. William himself felt that peace must be made, though he only meant to get ready for the next conflict with France, which he felt was coming. In 1697 the Peace of Ryswick was concluded. The Spanish Netherlands were saved, and Antwerp remained

outside French power. Thus England could breathe again.

Death of William III. William died on March 8, 1702. About three weeks before, when riding at Hampton Court, his horse had stepped on a mole-hill, and thrown him down, so that his collar-bone was broken. His health was always bad, and he did not survive the shock. He was a silent, dry Dutchman, heroic and tenacious. His life was one long struggle against scheming politicians at home, and his great enemy, Louis XIV, abroad. He gave his whole time to affairs of State, taking part in no amusements whatever, except hunting, of which he was passionately fond. He gave civil freedom to England, and, for a time at least, secured her safety abroad. For these gifts England must thank this great statesman, who died unloved but respected by his people.

ANNE

The reign of Queen Anne. Anne was the daughter of James II and of Anne Hyde, his first wife. She had been brought up as a member of the Church of England, to which she remained true all her life. She had accepted the Revolution Settlement, and had lived since 1689 with William and Mary, who had no children. On the death of William she succeeded him, and although herself a Stuart, was quite naturally accepted as the ruler.

Her reign presents one of the most brilliant periods of English history. The ships of the East India Company, the fast-sailing 'East Indiamen', built at Deptford, sailed regularly to Bombay and Calcutta. Sugar,

tobacco, and rice were brought from the southern colonies of America, furs from the country round Hudson Bay. In the coffee-houses, which began in the reign of Charles II, people met to talk as they do now in the clubs of Pall Mall and Piccadilly; printed news-sheets were handed round, and the affairs of the world discussed. Men began to know something of the great lands overseas. The Navy became the pride of the land, and the career of Cloudesley Shovell, who rose from being cabin-boy to admiral, was known to every one.

The love of reading and learning was encouraged by great writers like Addison, who wrote in the *Spectator*; Pope, who wrote beautiful verses; Defoe and Swift, who wrote about politics. Dutch methods had resulted in draining the land; new crops, roots especially, were being cultivated.

The cause of the Spanish Succession War. The cause of the great war which lasted from 1702 to 1713 was the will of the King of Spain, Charles II, who had no children. One sister had married Louis XIV, another had married the Emperor Leopold, the ruler of Austria. Both these monarchs claimed Spain as an inheritance from their brother-in-law.

When Charles II of Spain died (1700), it was found that he had made a will leaving his inheritance (that is to say, Spain and the whole of her empire) to Philip of Anjou, the second grandson of Louis XIV. Louis at once accepted the splendid gift for his grandson. France and Spain would now be ruled by members of the same house.

The interest of England in the Spanish Succession. The Spanish Succession altered the balance of power in Europe. If a French prince should acquire the whole Spanish Empire, England might, at some time or other,

METROPOLITAN BOROUGH OF ... PUBLIC LIBRARIES

lie at France's mercy. All Europe would then be under the power of France, so that no other country would be able to settle its own affairs without the leave of that country.

England had a particular interest in the Spanish Netherlands (or Belgium). If these, with their great port of Antwerp, had fallen into the power of a grand naval and military state like France, England, as already explained, would never have been safe. When William III died on March 8, 1702, he had arranged a Grand Alliance between England, the Dutch, and the German states, to prevent the undue growth of power of France.

The campaigns. As far as England was concerned, the War of the Spanish Succession was fought in three 'theatres'. The first was in the Low Countries, and in 1704 in Bavaria; the second was in Spain; the third was on the sea. The hero of the wars in the Low Countries and Bavaria was the Duke of Marlborough, ably assisted by the great Imperialist general, Prince Eugene of Savoy. The hero of the Spanish war was the brilliant Earl of Peterborough. The heroes of the war at sea were Rooke and Shovell.

The Duke of Marlborough. John Churchill was one of the greatest and the weakest of mankind. A magnificent general, careful of his soldiers' lives, careful of the dignity of his country and the interests of his allies, he could yet stoop to deceit in order to make money, and would plot against an able fellow general, for fear of finding in him a rival. The character of this great man is described in *Henry Esmond*—his heroic qualities, his small jealousies, his secret dealings with the exiled Stuarts.

John Churchill was born in 1650 at Ashe in Devonshire.

His father was Sir Winston Churchill, belonging to an old Dorsetshire family. John went to St. Paul's School in the City of London, and was educated in Latin and Greek. He was never able to spell properly in English. On leaving school he became a page to James, Duke of York (James II), and at the age of 17 became an ensign—a subaltern—in the Foot Guards.

DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH

In 1672 he served with the English who were helping the French in the war against the Dutch. The great Marshal Turenne mentioned him for gallantry. He was a most handsome young man and made friends easily. The Duchess of Cleveland, who liked his looks and sprightly conversation, gave him £5,000. Young Churchill at once bought an annuity of £500 a year, and so became a gentleman of independent means. After this he served with the forces in Scotland, when the Duke of York was governor, and was rewarded with a Scottish peerage. At the battle of Sedgemoor he commanded under the Earl of Feversham. When William of Orange came over to England in 1688 Churchill went over to his side, and from this time his career was made. He held high positions under William III, and after the death of General Talmash in the expedition against Brest in 1694 there was no one to compare with him in the British Army. Throughout this time he maintained a correspondence with the exiled James II. Such was the man who on the opening of the

Spanish Succession War was appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces. Yet never had England a finer soldier, or one more active in face of the enemy.

The Earl of Peterborough. Charles Mordaunt, third Earl of Peterborough, was one of the most brilliant men of a brilliant age. Born of a noble family in 1658, he was educated at Eton and at Christ Church, which he entered at the age of 16. Next year (1675) he went to sea as a volunteer on H.M.S. *Cambridge*, which was commanded by his kinsman, Captain Arthur Herbert, later known as Admiral Lord Torrington. Although a young gallant of wealth and influence, he did not, like so many other favourites of fortune in the reign of Charles II, quit the sea; he served in one ship after another for five years. In 1680 he volunteered for land service at Tangier against the Moors. In 1687 he commanded a squadron in the West Indies. In 1688 he went to Holland, and along with his friend Major Wildman he took part in the negotiations for bringing over William of Orange. He was one of the leading men; was known as a great wit, an eloquent speaker, and a delightful writer of letters. He looked like neither a sailor nor a soldier, for he was small and thin. In 1705 he was appointed to a joint command with Cloudesley Shovell of a fleet which was sailing to Spain. It was not on the sea, however, that his fresh laurels were to be won: it was in arduous and wonderful campaigns on land.

Rooke. Sir George Rooke, Admiral of the Fleet, was born in 1650. In the seventeenth century there was no permanent naval service. Officers and men were engaged for a particular voyage or period, and at the end of their time were paid off. They then retired into private life, or entered the Army, or did what they pleased (often

living in poverty and distress) till the King asked for sailors again.

The officers in the last half of the seventeenth century were of two kinds—gentlemen and 'tarpaulins'. The gentlemen sailors were men of good family, who obtained command of a ship by Court favour without having any particular experience.

The tarpaulins were real seamen, who started as cabin-boys or men before the mast, never left the sea, engaged on every ship that offered, and, when paid off, remained round the Admiralty or the dockyards till they got another 'berth'. The Navy was their father and mother, and they knew about ships and the sea, if they knew nothing else.

It was not till the eighteenth century that service in the Navy became something like permanent and that men of good family and education took to it for their career. When this happened, gentlemen and tarpaulins were combined, and the modern type of well-mannered, trained, efficient, widely interested naval officer was developed.

Rooke was one of the first of this type, born almost, as it were, before his time. He came of a good family—his father was Sir William Rooke, a Sheriff of Kent—and he took to the sea as a young man, volunteering for the second Dutch War (1672). He never left the sea; no sooner was one ship paid off than another was offered him; for there were few sailor-gentlemen like him, who never refused a commission. In succession he commanded the *Royal Prince*, the *Nonsuch*, the *Hampshire*, and ships with names still to be found in the Navy List. In 1690 he fought in the disastrous battle off Beachy Head against the French. In 1691 he was vice-admiral of the Blue Squadron (the squadrons of the English Navy were

then known by the colour of their admiral's ensign). In 1702 he was made commander-in-chief of the English fleet off Spain and in the Mediterranean.

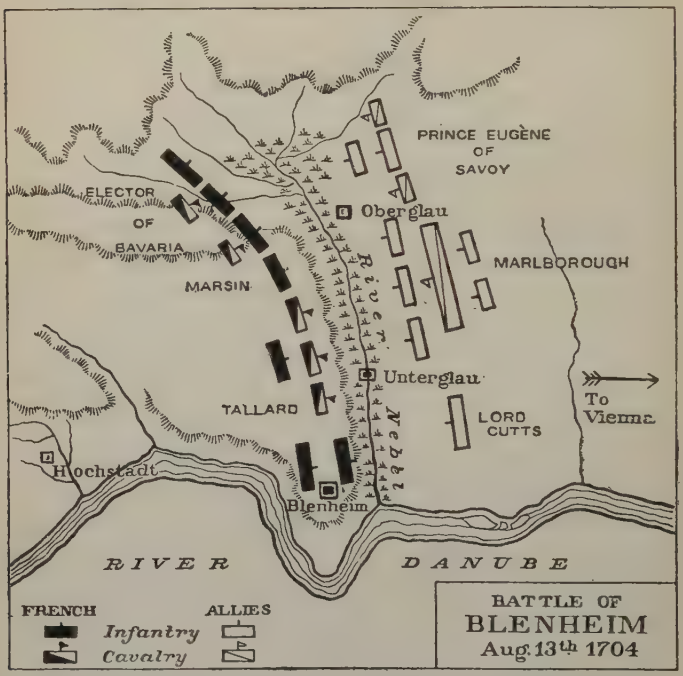
Sir Cloudesley Shovell. Cloudesley Shovell was a tarpaulin. He did not come of poor parents, but from a respectable family hailing originally from Norwich. He went to sea as cabin-boy. In a fight during the first Dutch War (1665–7) he swam from one ship to another, under fire, carrying dispatches. In 1673 he was made a second lieutenant. For the next thirteen years he saw much active service in the Mediterranean against the pirates of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli. He was speedily promoted to be a captain. In 1690 William III made him rear-admiral of the Blue. In the battle of La Hogue against the French (1692) he was second in command under Admiral Russell and 'broke the line' of the enemy's fleet. In 1702, at the outbreak of the War of the Spanish Succession, he held the chief command under Rooke.

Shovell was drowned off the Scilly Islands in October 1707, on the way home after his successful operations in the Mediterranean. There is a fine portrait of him in the Painted Hall at Greenwich Naval College. He was a man who knew the sea perfectly, fought his ships with the highest skill and the utmost courage, and led them to victory in some of the hardest fights in our country's history.

Marlborough's campaigns. The great object entrusted to Marlborough was to secure the Spanish Netherlands, which had been easily occupied by France. English and Dutch troops were employed under him in 1702 and 1703 in operations on the line of the Meuse (Maas). In this quarter they were fairly successful, capturing Liége, Venloo, and other strong places. Most of the German

states joined the Grand Alliance. Bavaria, however, sided with France, and opened the way for a French army advancing from Alsace towards Vienna.

Blenheim. Marlborough resolved to march into the south of Germany, and to meet the French in battle in



the valley of the Danube. In May 1704 he began the great march up the Rhine. Most of the way was through friendly country, yet it required the greatest skill to keep his army safe, and to secure his supplies of food and munitions. On his way Marlborough met Prince Eugene of Savoy, the Imperialist general; it was the

first meeting of the two greatest generals of the age. From that time they worked in close friendship with each other. After one sharp battle Marlborough and Eugene gained control over most of Bavaria. The next battle was Blenheim.

A French army of 25,000 men, joined by a considerable force of Bavarians, was meanwhile advancing from the west. Near the village of Blenheim, on the north bank of the Danube, Marshal Tallard fixed his lines, and prepared a strong position for defence. Marlborough either had to attack under great disadvantages, or retreat with every prospect of being cut off by the active French general.

The famous battle took place on August 13, 1704. The Grenadier Guards, the 10th Foot (now Lincolnshire Regiment), the 21st Foot (Royal Scots Fusiliers), the 23rd Foot (Royal Welsh Fusiliers), and the 24th Foot (South Wales Borderers) marched steadily to within thirty paces of the village of Blenheim; although received by a withering fire from the French at this distance, they still advanced, without stopping to fire a shot, with their Brigadier, Row, on foot leading them, till they had scaled the palisades of the village. Their leader was mortally wounded, and the attack failed, but a disaster was averted by a charge of Lord Cutts's cavalry brigade. Gradually Marlborough worked out his plan; the grand attack on Blenheim was made about three o'clock in the afternoon; the village was carried, and the French army routed.

The wars in the Low Countries. The rest of Marlborough's campaigns were fought in the Spanish Netherlands, on which the French retained a firm hold. In 1706 the Allied army met the French under Marshal Villeroi at Ramillies, and almost completely destroyed

it. Brussels, Ghent, and Bruges then opened their gates to the great Marlborough. The victory of Oudenarde (1708) was followed by the invasion of France itself, and the capture by Marlborough of the great fortress of Lille. The campaign of 1709 was memorable for the battle of Malplaquet, so bloody that neither side could claim a complete victory, although the French withdrew, and Marlborough accordingly captured Mons. In 1711 Marlborough returned to England.

The war in Spain. Marlborough's campaigns at least saved the Spanish Netherlands from coming into the hands of France. The campaigns in Spain were meant to expel French power from there, but, opening brilliantly, they ended in disaster.

In 1705 the Earl of Peterborough, with about 5,000 men (including the Archduke Charles), having sailed by Lisbon and the Straits of Gibraltar, appeared off Barcelona. A landing was effected; siege was laid to the city, which was defended by French and Spanish troops.

Peterborough tempted the garrison out to fight, rushed upon them, scattered them, and entered the gates with the fugitives. Skill, luck, and daring had given him Barcelona.

In 1706 Peterborough had to deal with a French force of 20,000 men, who came to retake Barcelona. He himself had only 3,000 regular troops, but with the help of some irregular levies, and of the small English fleet (of which he, too, held command), he foiled the French and compelled them to raise the siege. The rest of Peterborough's career, however, was less successful.

The Navy. The most striking operation of the Navy was carried out by Rooke and Shovell in 1704. The fleet appeared off Gibraltar. 'A few English sailors climbed the rock', and the impregnable fortress passed under

the English flag. The possession of this lonely rock on the coast of Spain is a great source of English strength. Since the cutting of the Suez Canal it is on the ocean-highway to India, and it secures our entrance to the Mediterranean.

The great work of the Navy was to transport men and supplies to the Low Countries and to Spain, in spite of the formidable sea-power of France. Commerce, too, had to be protected against the active privateering war which the French ships maintained. The English merchant-ships were taken in groups along the main sea-lanes, convoyed by frigates of the Royal Navy.

In the waters around the West Indies there was much fighting, without marked advantage to the English. The commander-in-chief there was Admiral Benbow, the son of a Shrewsbury tanner. In August 1702 he fought an action off Santa Marta against the French. His captains disobeyed him. Benbow's right leg was shot off, but he kept to his quarter-deck, and fought his ship successfully out of the action. He died of his wounds in Jamaica, two months later. The heroic admiral has become an almost legendary figure in the traditions of the Royal Navy.

The Peace of Utrecht. In 1713 Treaties were signed at Utrecht. These said that Spain and France should never be united under one monarch, and that the Spanish Netherlands should be separated from the Spanish Empire and given to Austria. France gave to England Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the French settlements round Hudson Bay. Philip of Anjou was left in Spain as King Philip V.

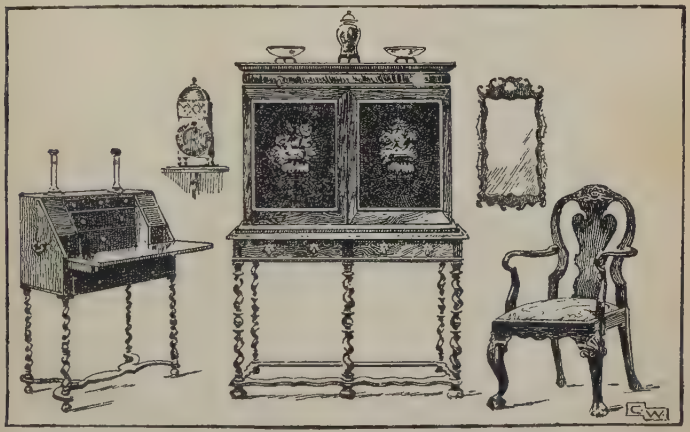
The war cannot be said to have been a failure. If the succession of a French prince to the throne of Spain had not been prevented, at any rate French power in the Low Countries had been destroyed. There was no longer

any chance of a French fleet threatening the peace and safety of England from Antwerp; the Dutch were safe too.

The death of Anne. The Queen's health was failing. The Act of Settlement, 1701, had fixed the succession, in the event of Anne dying without children, in the line of the Electress Sophia of Hanover. Sophia was granddaughter of King James I. She was, like her mother, a firm upholder of the Reformed Church in Germany;

her son George had distinguished himself as a general in the Imperial Army in the War of the Spanish Succession. Queen Anne, however, was known to sympathize with the exiled House of Stuart, of which she was a member. The chief ministers were in correspondence with the 'Old Pretender', the son of James II. The people as a whole did not like the idea of a German prince, who could not even speak English, becoming their sovereign. The minds of the ministers, however, were not quite made up. They knew the English would not easily accept a Roman

Catholic king; and yet the Pretender would not promise to give up his religion. On July 30 the Queen was taken seriously ill. Her final decline was rapid. The party in the Government which favoured the Protestant Succession of the House of Hanover, led by the Duke of Shrewsbury, suddenly asserted themselves. Anne died on August 1, 1714, and George of Hanover was at once declared King of England.



QUEEN ANNE FURNITURE

The Union with Scotland (1707). During the late Queen's reign a most notable act of peace had been accomplished. Scotland and England were united under one Government. Although joined under one crown, by the accession of James I to the English throne in 1603, the two countries had retained their separate Governments—each had its own Council and Parliament, and, although the same sovereign ruled over both, he might have to accept one kind of advice from the Government in England and another from the Government in Scot-

land. In the later years of William III and in the early years of Anne's reign a great deal of friction took place between the English and Scottish Governments. The English Navigation Acts bore very hardly upon the trade of the Scots, who were treated as belonging to a foreign country. In 1703 feeling ran so high that the Scottish Parliament passed an 'Act of Security'. This gave the Parliament power, on the death of Anne, to choose a successor other than the one chosen in England. Anne, as a 'constitutional' monarch, had to agree.

The English Government proposed a complete union between the two countries. The terms were arranged as a treaty between Scotland and England. This Treaty, or Act of Union, decreed that the Scottish Council and Parliament should cease to exist, and that there should henceforth be only one Government for the two countries. The Scots were to retain their established Presbyterian Church and their own laws. Trade between the two countries was to be free, and Scotsmen and Englishmen were to be treated alike throughout the British Empire. The United Kingdom was henceforth to be known as Great Britain (March 6, 1707).

Success of the Union. The Union has proved a striking success. Admitted on free and equal terms to share in England and England's Empire, the Scots speedily made their way, and rose to high positions in trade, at the Universities, in the Government, in the Navy, Army, and Imperial affairs. The Union, being arranged as a free treaty between the two peoples, each country has enormously gained by it—the Scots by the great opportunities opened up to them outside their own small country, the English by the work done by this active people in every corner of the Empire.

CHAPTER XXI

THE FIRST TWO GEORGES

The character of George I. On the death of Queen Anne, George, the son of Sophia of Hanover, quietly succeeded to the throne. He was fifty-four years of age, honest, well-meaning, and attentive to business. He was unable to speak English, and in any case had very little

GEORGE I
Medal struck to commemorate naval action off Cape Passaro, 1718

to say. He knew little about the English people, and had no particular sympathy with them. He tried to do his duty, however, and loyally carried out the understanding on which he had come to the throne—namely, that being really a foreigner he should not interfere too much in English affairs. He therefore did not regularly attend the meetings of ministers, and was the less tempted to do so because he did not understand the language.

The Cabinet. 'Cabinet' Government, which had already taken form under Anne, was further developed. The Cabinet is a governing committee of ministers,

meeting under the control of the chief or 'prime' minister, and responsible for its actions to Parliament.

England under the first two Georges. Under the first two Georges England was happy, prosperous, and, on the whole, progressive. In each of the chief forms of national life some real distinction was achieved.

Between 1714 and 1739 there occurred a Jacobite Rebellion (1715) and a brief naval war with Spain (1718). England was respected abroad. At home the country was well governed, orderly, and free. The laws against Nonconformists were still in force, but were not carried out. The Press was free, and maintained a keen interest in politics throughout the country. The Members of Parliament were mostly able men, but the Government bribed its chief supporters by gifts of pensions and high positions. Even the great Walpole did this.

The Church of England also suffered in some ways. The bishops, being appointed by the Government, were mainly Whig; the lower clergy, being generally appointed by country squires who owned the 'livings', were generally Tory. The poorer clergy had very little chance of promotion, while those holding the higher positions were rather worldly. Yet the clergy, both high and low, were a respectable body of men, well educated, not neglecting their duties. A revival of religious feeling, which left a lasting effect in England and in America, was begun by the brothers Wesley about the year 1730. With Wesley at first was associated George Whitefield, an ordained clergyman of the Church of England, whose preaching was very popular in the period of Walpole and Chatham. Whitefield left the Church and spent the latter part of his life in religious work in America.

In learning and literature the age was famous. Sir

Isaac Newton, the greatest of English mathematicians, whose long life lasted from 1642 to 1727, was Master of the Mint. George Berkeley, one of the most beautiful characters of this or any age, takes a high place as a philosopher and as a writer of English. Daniel Defoe

JOHN WESLEY, 1703–91
Founder of Methodism

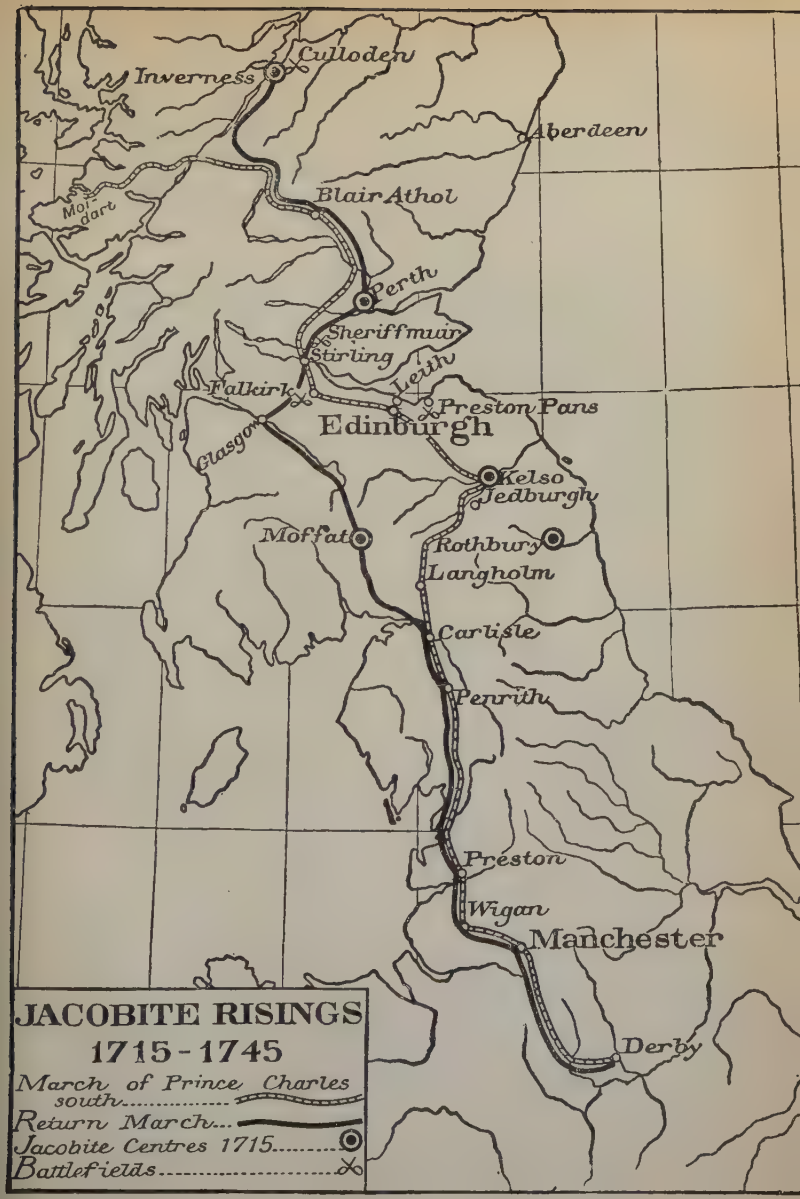
published his best-known works in the reign of George I; it was in 1719 that *Robinson Crusoe* appeared, to charm every British boy since that time, to widen his interests, extend his outlook, and to give him the enthusiasm of adventure and romance. In 1726 Swift published *Gulliver's Travels*; Pope's brilliant poem, the *Essay on Man*, appeared in 1733.

The Rebellion of 1715. George I trusted to Whig

ministers from the first. When he had been on the throne of England just a year, the followers of James, the 'Old Pretender', raised a rebellion in the Highlands, in the south of Scotland, and in the north of England (September 1715). The rising was badly managed. The Earl of Mar and his Highlanders were checked on Sheriffmuir in Perthshire (November 13, 1715), and on the same day the insurgents of Lancashire had to give in at Preston. When the Old Pretender landed at Peterhead, in January 1716, he found the rising practically over, and had to get back to France as best he could. James was a brave man, but with little else to recommend him, and was not fit for the leadership of a desperate rebellion. The chief result of the Rebellion of 1715 was to make George determined never to trust a Tory Government, for he looked upon all Tories as being simply Jacobites. The fear of revolution made the greater part of the country agree with him, so that for fifty years the majority of members returned to Parliament were Whig. When the Rebellion of 1715 was dying out it was considered unwise to risk a General Election, and accordingly the life of Parliament was prolonged from three to seven years by the Septennial Act (April 1716), which remained in force till 1911.

The South Sea Bubble. In 1711 a Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas had been formed. The capital of the Company, that is to say, the money it had for use, amounted to the large sum of £10,000,000, all of which was lent to the Government. For this the Company received 8 per cent. interest.

From one point of view, therefore, the Company might be called a 'Trust Company', with its funds invested in


Inverness
Culloden
Aberdeen
Blair Athol
Perth
Sheriffmuir
Stirling
Leith
Falkirk
Preston Pans
Edinburgh
Glasgow
Kelso
Jedburgh
Moffat
Rothbury
Langholm
Carlisle
Penrith
Preston
Wigan
Manchester
Derby
JACOBITE RISINGS
1715 - 1745
March of Prince Charles south
Return March
Jacobite Centres 1715
Battlefields

Government Stock. It was also a trading company. Under one of the treaties drawn up at the Peace of Utrecht (1713) Great Britain had the right to send one ship a year to the Spanish colonies for general trade, and also to supply negroes from Africa for slave-labour. These privileges the Government handed over to the South Sea Company.

In 1720 the ideas of the Company directors had grown too big. They offered to take over about £32,000,000 of the National Debt: the Government was to pay them 5 per cent. interest.

The misfortunes came when people, anxious to buy shares in the Company, forced the price up, from £100 for one share to £1,000. A share of £100 was worth £100 when the dividend was 5 per cent.; but the same share was only worth £1,000 if the dividend was 50 per cent. As the dividend of the South Sea Company was only 7 or 8 per cent., the people who bought at £1,000 were ruined.

Walpole in power. The Company itself was quite sound. Its holding of Government Stock, and its trade to the South Seas, brought in a respectable revenue. It was the people who had put their all into buying shares at an absurd price who suffered. So many people were involved that the crisis was nothing less than a national calamity: there was a panic in all commercial circles, and widespread ruin threatened the country. Then the ministers thought of Walpole, the level-headed Norfolk squire, who in Parliament had warned the public of the dangers of the scheme, after making a fortune out of it for himself. George I was advised to offer him the chief post in the Ministry, and so Walpole became First Lord of the Treasury (the position which the Prime Minister

has usually since held) in April 1721. He took what means could be adopted to relieve the distress; where the directors of the Company were found to have misled the public (and there had been a good deal of bribery between the directors and certain courtiers), they were

ROBERT WALPOLE (seated). First Lord of the Treasury 1721–42

prosecuted, and their property was used to relieve the distress caused by the panic.

As an exporting and importing firm the Company continued to carry on a small trade with South America till the year 1748. The most disgraceful thing about the crisis had been the fact that English Cabinet ministers had themselves been dealing in the stocks, and using their knowledge to make money from the public.

Walpole. Robert Walpole was born in 1676. His father, the squire of Houghton, in Norfolk, had nineteen children, and Robert, the fifth, was the eldest who survived. He went to school at Eton, as a Colleger maintained by the foundation ; his portrait is to be seen in Eton College Hall. From Eton he went to King's College, Cambridge. When he was 24 years old he married, and when he was 25 his father died. Walpole thus became a country gentleman of independent means, his income from Houghton estate being £2,000 a year. The small borough of Castle Rising on the estate returned a member to Parliament ; the squire himself became the member.

Walpole was always a Whig, and the Whigs were the most influential party for most of Queen Anne's reign. The chiefs of the party soon noticed his good sense and his industry; and he was made Secretary at War in 1708. In 1712, after the Whigs had been displaced from office, he was impeached on a charge of corruptly receiving money while Secretary at War. He was sentenced to a short term of confinement in the Tower of London. There is no doubt, however, that he was personally quite honest, and that he never received any money from the country beyond his salary.

On the accession of George I the Whigs came into office and remained there for nearly fifty years, the Tories being considered Jacobites, and therefore unfit to be in the confidence of either king or country. Walpole became Chancellor of the Exchequer. In 1717 George I wished to declare war upon Russia. Walpole objected, and retired from the Ministry. George I had a great belief in Walpole, and besought him, without effect, with tears in his eyes, to remain. He returned, at an almost

unanimous call from the country, in 1721, and was Prime Minister, although he never called himself so, for the next twenty years.

The policy of Walpole. Walpole was a splendid administrator. His policy was peace abroad and prosperity at home: it is the policy which every statesman pursues, but which few have been able to achieve. How Walpole managed, no one can quite say. He was always genial, always sensible.

No one could deny the good results of his administration. Taxes were low, the Press and the dissenters were left free, the National Debt was diminished, and the colonies not interfered with. The Prime Minister's straightforward, good-humoured speeches always appealed to the sense of the House. He had, indeed, a real faith in his country, and a strong sense of duty. Yet he concealed this under a laughing face, and often under a rather coarse manner of speaking.

Walpole was not allowed to carry on his work without a good deal of opposition. Bolingbroke (Secretary of State, 1711–14), who had fled to France, took up the Jacobite cause. In 1723 he was allowed to return to England and he then attacked Walpole in a number of brilliantly written works, the best known of which is the *Patriot King*.

In 1722 a serious conspiracy to bring in Spanish troops was arranged by Bishop Francis Atterbury. It was discovered and Atterbury died in exile.

The Excise Bill, 1733. Walpole, the most powerful of English premiers, passed comparatively few measures. Some, good in themselves, he withdrew rather than see the country plunged into agitation. Such was the fate of his Excise Bill. Excise is taxation levied *inside* the

country upon various commodities. For instance, beer made in England pays excise. Customs are dues levied on goods coming into the country from abroad. In Great Britain, wine and tobacco, being imported from abroad, have always been subject to customs dues. Walpole proposed to change the customs dues, levied on

HATRED OF EXCISE. Cartoon showing the Lion and the Unicorn yoked to a beer-barrel

wine and tobacco at their entrance into the country, into excise dues, levied when they were taken out of bond. The object of this proposal was to defer the payment of the dues; tobacco and wine shipped to England in order to be exported again to Europe would not pay duty at all, and trade would be much helped. The Excise Bill, if carried into effect, would have lessened, at any

rate, the mean and dishonest practice of smuggling, which cheated the revenue of so much money. Under Walpole's proposed system all goods could come freely into the ports, but every shop would have to pay duty to the revenue officers for the excisable goods which it sold.

Against this Bill the opposition raised such a feeling among the people that Walpole withdrew it.

George II. George I died in 1727 on his way to Hanover. His son, George II, like his father, a sensible, good-natured man, made no change in the ministry. He had one great advantage over his father: he could speak English quite fluently. Nevertheless, he was not quite an Englishman.

GEORGE II

He was a brave man, and, when the country went to war, George quite naturally went with the army, and, sword in hand, led the troops in the attack. He had, too, what the English like, a sense of justice, and was fair to every one. He did not greatly like Walpole. When some one told him once that Wolfe, whom he was trusting with such high command, was *mad*, George replied: 'I wish he would bite some of my other generals'. He was fortunate in

having a very handsome and amiable wife in Queen Caroline, a firm supporter of the minister. Had it not been for her help Walpole would have found it hard to keep the peace in 1733. The French and Spanish monarchies had signed a 'Family Compact' to support each other, and Walpole knew that it meant a danger to England. In 1733 the War of the Polish Succession broke out, France and Spain taking sides against Austria. A large party in England desired to support Austria. Walpole was, as usual, calm and sensible. England had no interest in the struggle: neither side was fighting for any principle, except to gain power. Walpole's firmness carried the country through the crisis, and it was with some real pride that he could tell his friend, Queen Caroline, that though fifty thousand men had been killed in one year in Europe, not one of them was an Englishman.

The War of Jenkins's Ear. The end of Walpole's happy administration came in consequence of the war which broke out in 1739. During the peace British commerce had flourished exceedingly, and British ships were sailing on every sea. London and Bristol were among the most thriving ports in Western Europe. Yet the Spanish Empire still stood in the way, shutting out English commerce from half the New World. Spain could neither develop her empire herself nor endure the thought of any one else doing so. She kept a watch in the waters round the Spanish Colonies, and prevented trading. Under one of the treaties made at the Peace of Utrecht, the South Sea Company exercised the right of sending one ship of five hundred tons burden each year to the South Seas; this ship on each voyage was met and restocked several times by other ships dispatched for the

purpose—a practice of which the Spanish Government bitterly complained, although the Spanish colonists, who could get goods in no other way, welcomed it.

One Jenkins, the master of a sloop which traded from Jamaica, came forward in 1738 with a tale of having been stopped by Spanish ships, searched, and having had his ear torn off. The war party made great use of this, and the British Lion was roused by the story of his woe.

Walpole had no sympathy with the agitation. If there were grievances, he said, let them be adjusted peacefully. He arranged a convention: the claims of England and Spain for damages were to be set off one against the other, and the balance, £95,000, was to be handed over to the English Government (1739). Walpole thought that he had weathered the storm once more. He defended his conduct in Parliament with his usual vigour and clearness.

The Opposition, however, roused the country against him. In the Opposition was a fiery, eloquent young man, William Pitt, 'this terrible cornet of horse', as Walpole called him.

Unfortunately for his reputation, Walpole did not allow himself to be driven from office. 'They may ring the bells now; before long they will be wringing their hands,' he said. He probably thought the people would get over their madness, and be glad of his policy of common sense again. Unfortunately, war has a way of spreading. The war over 'Jenkins's Ear' soon involved not Spain and England only, but France, Austria, Prussia, and Bavaria likewise.

Condition of the Navy. England and Spain were maritime empires, and the war was conducted at sea. It was the South American trade that the merchants were

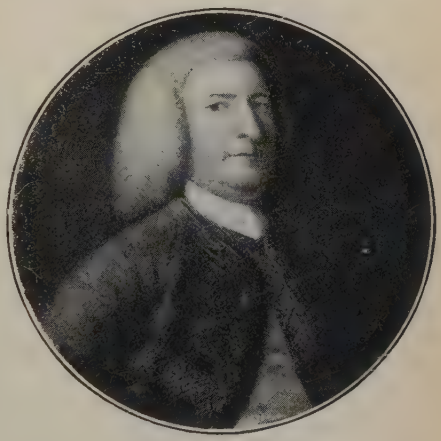
interested in, and accordingly it was to South America that the fleets were sent. One expedition went against the Atlantic coast, another against the Pacific coast. The novelist Smollett was a surgeon's mate in the expedition to Cartagena, and in *Roderick Random* he describes the conditions of life on His Majesty's ships in the middle of the eighteenth century :

' After dinner Thomson led me round the ship, showed me the different parts, described their uses, and, as far as he could, made me acquainted with the particulars of the discipline and economy practised on board. He then demanded of the boatswain an hammock for me, which was slung in a very neat manner by my friend Jack Rattlin ; and as I had no bed-clothes, procured credit for me, with the purser, for a mattress and two blankets. At seven o'clock in the evening, Morgan visited the sick, and having ordered what was proper for each, I assisted Thomson in making up his prescriptions ; but when I followed him with the medicines into the sick berth or hospital, and observed the situations of the patients, I was much less surprised that people should die on board than that any sick person should recover. Here I saw about fifty miserable distempered wretches, suspended in rows, so huddled one upon another, that not more than fourteen inches space was allotted for each with his bed and bedding ; and deprived of the light of day, as well as of fresh air, breathing nothing but a noisome atmosphere.'

Anson's Voyage. Commodore George Anson was born in 1697, and had entered the Navy at the age of 13. Without either wealth or influence, he had risen to the position of captain, through strict attention to his profession. He was a man of few words, but nobody knew more about ships and sailors. He was cool, courageous, and careful to carry out instructions.

The squadron which went out with him in 1740

consisted of the *Centurion*, 60 guns and 400 men, the *Gloucester* and the *Severn* (each 50 guns and 300 men), the *Pearl*, 40 guns, the *Wager*, 28 guns, and the sloop *Trial*—a mere cockle-shell—8 guns. They left Portsmouth in September, and sailed across the Atlantic to Brazil; south towards Patagonia and the Straits of Magellan. Off Tierra del Fuego the squadron was scattered by a storm. The Commodore's flagship, the *Centurion*, went on its way alone. By the beginning of summer, 1741, it had sailed round South America to the quiet waters of the Pacific. Horrid ailments attacked the crew—scurvy, jaundice, ulcers, rheumatism—due to the lack of proper nourishment. Two hundred died.



ADMIRAL ANSON

At last the *Centurion* reached Juan Fernandez, Robinson Crusoe's island, where Alexander Selkirk, the Scottish sailor, had lived alone between 1704 and 1709. The island was uninhabited; the sailors joyfully roamed over it, refreshing themselves with wild fruit and herbs, and the flesh of goats that they killed.

At Juan Fernandez the *Centurion* was joined by the little sloop *Trial*.

In September 1741 Anson, with the *Centurion* and the *Trial*, left Juan Fernandez. Between Valparaiso and

Callao they took a Spanish merchantman, with a cargo of sugar, silver, and cloth—each useful in its own way. Anson's next objective was the town of Paita. Lieutenant Brett, with 58 sailors in the *Centurion's* boats, landed and captured the whole town. £30,000 was taken, and the town was set on fire. All prisoners, however, were treated with kindness and civility.

Off Peru Anson hoped to capture the 'Manilla Galleon', a great ship which came twice a year from the Philippines to exchange its merchandise for Peruvian silver. He missed it, however, and so sailed across the Pacific towards China. At the Portuguese settlement of Macao he was able to refit and then put out again (April 1743). On June 20 the Commodore fell in with the Manilla Galleon returning with silver ore from Peru. A sharp action ensued; the British gunfire proved much superior, and the galleon with its rich cargo was captured.

The great voyage was completed by a journey round the Cape of Good Hope. In June 1744 the Commodore cast his anchor in Spithead after an absence of three years nine months. He had shown the power of Britain on the sea, having sailed through the Spanish waters and hit hard at the Spanish power. Anson continued to serve with distinction in the Navy, and was later raised to the peerage.

The attack on Porto Bello (1740). A fleet also went out under Admiral Vernon and attacked and took Porto Bello. Porto Bello was captured, and the event inspired an otherwise undistinguished writer to produce one of the finest ballads in the English language. This man was Richard Glover, a London merchant. In 1726, when there was trouble between the Governments of

England and Spain, Admiral Hosier had been sent to blockade the Spanish ports in the West Indies and South America. His orders, however, forbade him to fight. Cruising off unhealthy coasts the ships' companies suffered terribly from fever and scurvy. Inaction and the sight of his gallant men dying broke the Admiral's heart. When Vernon took Porto Bello in 1740, Glover imagined Hosier and his ghostly crews coming up from the waves to congratulate the lucky victor :

As near Porto Bello lying
On the gently swelling flood,
At midnight with streamers flying
Our triumphant navy rode ;
There while Vernon sate all-glorious
From the Spaniards' late defeat ;
And his crews, with shouts victorious,
Drank success to England's fleet :

On a sudden shrilly sounding,
Hideous yells and shrieks were heard ;
Then each heart with fear confounding,
A sad troop of ghosts appear'd,
All in dreary hammocks shrouded,
Which for winding sheets they wore,
And with looks by sorrow clouded
Frowning on that hostile shore.

On them gleamed the moon's wan lustre,
When the shade of Hosier brave
His pale bands were seen to muster
Rising from their watry grave.
O'er the glimmering wave he hy'd him,
Where the *Burford*[1] rear'd her sail,
With three thousand ghosts beside him
And in groans did Vernon hail.

[1] Admiral Vernon's ship.

Heed, oh heed our fatal story,
I am Hosier's injur'd ghost;
You who now have purchased glory
At this place where I was lost!
Tho' in Porto-Bello's ruin
You now triumph free from fears,
When you think on our undoing
You will mix your joy with tears.

See these mournful spectres sweeping
Ghastly o'er this hated wave,
Whose wan cheeks are stain'd with weeping;
These were English captains brave.
Mark those numbers pale and horrid,
Those were once my sailors bold:
Lo, each hangs his drooping forehead
While his dismal tale is told.

I, by twenty sail attended,
Did this Spanish town affright;
Nothing then its wealth defended
But my orders not to fight.
Oh! that in this rolling ocean
I had cast them with disdain
And obey'd my heart's warm motion
To have quell'd the pride of Spain.

For resistance I could fear none,
But with twenty ships had done
What thou, brave and happy Vernon,
Hast achiev'd with six alone.
Then the bastimentos never
Had our foul dishonour seen,
Nor the sea the sad receiver
Of this gallant train had been.

Hence with all my train attending
From their oozy tombs below,
Thro' the hoary foam ascending,
Here I feed my constant woe.

Here the bastimentos viewing,
We recall our shameful doom,
And our plaintive cries renewing
Wander thro' the midnight gloom.

O'er these waves for ever mourning
Shall we roam deprived of rest,
If to Britain's shores returning
You neglect my just request;
After the proud foe subduing,
When your patriot friends you see,
Think on vengeance for my ruin,
And for England sham'd in me.

End of Walpole's ministry. All his time in office Walpole had been a peace minister. At the last he had been compelled to undertake a war against Spain, but it was a naval war only. When he found the struggle spreading, and involving the great military Powers of the Continent of Europe, he had to choose once and for all—to become really a war-minister at the head of a great war-Government, or to resign. He chose the latter course. Only George II, who had learned to value the great minister, showed any sorrow. In February Walpole was raised to the peerage as Earl of Orford, and given a pension of £4,000 a year.

The War of the Austrian Succession. The war abroad had spread farther. In October 1740 the Emperor Charles VI, the head of the Germanic Confederation, died. He left his Austrian dominions to his daughter, the proud and spirited Maria Theresa. France, Prussia, and Great Britain had agreed to the law which Charles had made (called the Pragmatic Sanction), leaving all his territories undivided to his daughter. Among the territories was the fine province of Silesia. Frederick II of Prussia invaded Silesia (December 1740), to seize it

from Austria. This act produced the War of the Austrian Succession. The war ultimately resulted in Silesia belonging to Prussia. France took the side of Prussia. England, having previously promised to support the Pragmatic Sanction, took the side of Austria and Holland. Spain fought on the same side as France. Thus Prussia, Spain, and France were arrayed against Holland, Austria, and England. A war abroad with rebellion at home was what Walpole's successors in office had to face.

George II was ardent in his desire to help Austria. In this he was supported by the leader of the new Government, Lord Carteret, a brilliant man, who (according to Horace Walpole) boasted that it was not his affair to make judges and bishops; 'it is my business', he said, 'to make Kings and Emperors, and to maintain the balance of Europe'.

Dettingen. Until the end of 1742 the war on the Continent had gone against Austria. Frederick of Prussia overran and took Silesia, and then made peace with the Austrians (June 1742). In the summer of 1743 an army of about 40,000 British and hired Hanoverian troops entered Germany, to drive the French out of the Rhineland. They were at first under Lord Stair, but when they reached Dettingen, on the river Main (June 1743), George II joined them, and took over the command. On June 27 the British met the French army, which was in considerably superior numbers. King George, who was then in his sixtieth year, dismounted from his horse, and marched at the head of his troops to the attack. He waved his sword, and called, 'Now, boys, now for the honour of England; fire and behave bravely, and the French will soon run'; and so he

advanced against the French. His younger son, the Duke of Cumberland, commanding the left, likewise led the attack in person, and exposed himself where the fighting was hottest. The King and his men reached the French lines and broke them. Fighting fiercely, the French were forced to retreat, and, before the day was over, the retreat had been turned into a rout.

Fontenoy (May 11, 1745). The French were cleared out of South Germany, but in 1745 they invaded the Austrian Netherlands (Belgium), and threatened to invade England. The young Duke of Cumberland led an Anglo-Dutch army against the French forces, which were under Marshal Saxe. Cumberland was a good soldier, hard-working, courageous; however, he was not the equal of the experienced Marshal Saxe. The two armies met at Fontenoy; the attack of the Dutch troops failed. The Duke, to retrieve the day, led a solid column of 10,000 men against the French.

Their heroic advance had all but won the day. An advance by the Dutch would have completed the success. But the Dutch, though at hand and in good condition, did not move. Marshal Saxe made his last effort; he launched the Irish Brigade (Irish regiments in the French service) against the flank of the decimated British column, and brought up more artillery against its front. Exhausted, unsupported—shattered by artillery fire, assailed by the impetuous Irish—the column stopped and wavered; then steadily wheeled and, protected by rear-guards, marched slowly out of range.

Further warfare on land was almost completely stopped, so far as England was concerned, by a new Jacobite rebellion, which occurred in the same year as the battle of Fontenoy. In October 1748 the Treaty of

Aix-la-Chapelle was concluded. France and England restored what they had taken from each other. The Austrian Netherlands were returned to Austria, but Frederick II of Prussia retained Silesia. The commercial relations of England and Spain were put upon the same footing as they had stood before 1739.

Thus the treaty at the end of the war merely restored the same unsatisfactory state of affairs that had caused the war. Nothing was really settled. England still objected to the Spanish trading restrictions; Austria desired to get back Silesia: the colonial question between France and England had been brought forward, and then forgotten. If the war was worth fighting at all, it was worth finishing off with a settlement more likely to prove lasting. As matters stood after 1748, the peace only proved to be a breathing-space before the renewal of the contest on a much greater scale.

The Young Pretender. Prince Charles Edward Stuart, born at Rome in 1720, was the son of James the Old Pretender. He received a rather poor education, but he grew up a cultivated young man, knowing French and Italian, and with a taste for music and the fine arts. Charles was above the middle height, and very thin. He had a long, pale face, and large blue eyes. There was certainly something very striking about him, as there was about all the Stuarts. He was courageous and dignified, inspiring respect and interest in all who met him. He saw a little soldiering too, and served with credit in the Spanish forces. When the War of the Austrian Succession broke out the Jacobites saw their chance, and plans were formed for raising a rebellion against the House of Hanover in England. Charles went from Rome to France to get help. In this he failed.

So in 1745 Charles had to set forth practically unsupported. On July 13, with a few friends, he set sail in a small ship which he had secretly hired. On July 23, having evaded the British naval patrols, he landed in the Hebrides. From here Charles proceeded to the country

PRINCE CHARLES EDWARD STUART

of the Macdonalds, on the west coast of Inverness-shire. The raising of the Standard took place on August 19, 1745, at Glenfinnan.

The Highland chiefs rallied to the call of the House of Stuart. They had never forgotten how the great Marquis of Montrose had trained Highlanders to meet and overcome the disciplined soldiers of the south. The

great chiefs, Macdonell of Glengarry, Cameron of Lochiel, and others, brought their clansmen to join Charles's host. All told, this host was only a few thousands strong, yet Charles never hesitated to pursue his great venture.

The march to Edinburgh was unopposed, except by a few companies of dragoons, whom the Highlanders easily put to flight, outside the city. Edinburgh itself was entered, although the castle held out for King George. Charles held a court at Holyrood Palace. The stay of the chiefs and clansmen in Edinburgh is described with splendid humour and imagination in Scott's novel *Waverley.*

Most of the British regular forces were in Flanders with the Duke of Cumberland, and had to be brought back in haste. At Prestonpans, east of Edinburgh, the regular forces under Sir John Cope were met and defeated. Charles, however, did not follow up his victory, but delayed at Edinburgh for another month.

The English people did not wish to fight against Charles; but they certainly did not wish to fight *for* him. And this is true of most of the Scots also, of whom there were seldom more than 6,000 found at any time in his army.

The Highland host marched south, and entered Cumberland (November 8, 1745). The town of Carlisle surrendered almost without a blow. Charles, clad in plaid and kilt, bearing his claymore and target, marched at the head of the army, and showed the same endurance as the hardy clansmen. Rising at four in the morning, he marched all day without stopping for a regular meal. In the evening he ate a hearty supper, and then lay down in his clothes.

On December 4 (1745) Derby was reached. When the news reached London, on December 6, 'Black Friday', despair for a time seemed to possess the people. The Government was still largely unprepared; the troops ordered to Finchley Common had not been mobilized. The shops were shut; the Bank of England had to pay over the counter in sixpences, to avoid being 'broken'.

Nevertheless, on the same day, December 6, Charles began his retreat. Charles himself was anxious to go on. His councillors dissuaded him. The great march had shown that, heroic as his qualities were, his cause excited no enthusiasm. Six or seven thousand men, with little ammunition, no money, no supplies, could not long avoid destruction from the armies of Marshal Wade and the Duke of Cumberland, which were closing upon them. So the Highland host marched back into Scotland. On April 16, 1746, Charles and his small army met the Duke of Cumberland with the red-coats on Culloden Moor near Inverness. The heroism of the Highlanders could not prevent the destruction of their force.

The cruel treatment of the vanquished has stained the Duke of Cumberland's name. Charles wandered from April till September among the faithful clansmen, although the British Government offered £30,000 for his capture. He was tracked to the small island of South Uist, and was only saved by Miss Flora Macdonald, who took him to Skye in a small boat, disguised as her female attendant. Miss Macdonald was arrested later, but after a year obtained release.

Flora Macdonald married Alan Macdonald of Kingsburgh. In 1773 she and her husband went to North Carolina and settled there. Macdonald fought for King George in the American War of Independence. At the

GRAVES OF THE CLANS, CULLODEN

end of the war they returned to Scotland. Flora Macdonald died in 1790.

Prince Charles, after escaping to France, lived secretly in Paris. The fine young man who had borne every misfortune cheerfully in his great adventure now became a hopeless drunkard in exile. He died at Rome on January 31, 1788, and is buried in St. Peter's.

CHAPTER XXII

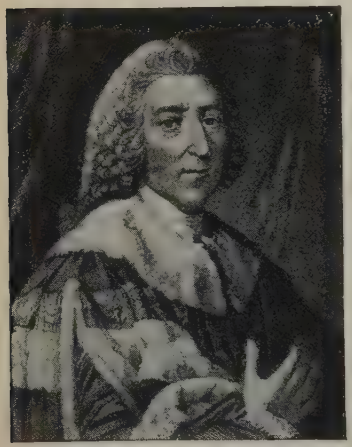
CHATHAM

Early career. William Pitt was born on November 15, 1708, in the city of Westminster. He was educated at Eton and Trinity College, Oxford, and was very studious.

His choice of profession was the Army. In 1731 he became a cornet in the Blues, Lord Cobham's Regiment, now known as the Royal Horse Guards. A cornet was standard-bearer in a troop of horse. The young officer's private means were £100 a year. With the military life he soon combined the parliamentary, as officers resident in London are still able to do. In 1735 he was returned to the House of Commons as burgess for Old Sarum. William Pitt at once sided with the Opposition against Walpole, and soon showed his power of speaking. 'We must muzzle this terrible cornet of horse,' said Walpole. The King was offended by Pitt's attitude towards the Royal Family at this time; accordingly, the young M.P. lost his commission in the Army. He obtained a position in the household of Frederick, Prince of Wales, who always supported the Opposition against his father the King. In 1739 Pitt made a great speech in the House

of Commons against the Convention of Pardo, by which Walpole hoped to avoid war with Spain.

During the War of the Austrian Succession Pitt angered George II by speaking very strongly about English money being spent in paying Hanoverian soldiers. Pitt, however, was rapidly becoming one of the most popular men in the country.



WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM

In 1755 Pitt was dismissed from office for once again speaking against money being given to Hanover. The Seven Years' War between France and Great Britain was now going on. In 1756 his popularity in the country was higher than ever. The war was going badly. The Government seemed not to know what to do. The Duke of Newcastle persuaded the King to pocket his pride and offer the position of Secretary of State to Pitt. Pitt accepted it. On April 9, 1757, the King dismissed him again, and for eleven weeks there was no Ministry at all. In June the King had to invite Pitt to come back to office. He became Secretary of State on the understanding that he should direct foreign affairs and the war.

The outbreak of the Seven Years' War. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle had satisfied few of the states which made it. Austria wanted to get back Silesia; the

English people felt they had made little headway in the New World and in the Indies. The French were closing round the British settlements in New England. In Louisiana and Canada French power was supreme. In India, where the French and English had commercial 'factories' and forts, collisions were frequent between the representatives of the two nations. Thus both in the Eastern and Western Hemispheres little was needed to start a general war.

In 1756 Austria and France, enemies for the last 250 years, agreed to become allies. Austria wanted to recover Silesia from Frederick II of Prussia; France wanted a strong military ally, who could help to check England and her allies in Europe. The English Government had already concluded a treaty of alliance with Prussia (Treaty of Westminster, January 16, 1756). The news of this was sufficient to bring the French and Austrian Governments together, and on May 1, 1756, they concluded the Treaty of Versailles. Thus Austria and France, enemies in the War of the Austrian Succession, were allies; so were England and Prussia.

British Defeats. In July 1755 General Braddock was ambushed and defeated on an expedition against Fort Duquesne, the French fort on the Ohio river in North America. In May 1756 a French fleet landed 16,000 men in the island of Minorca, which had been in British possession since the Treaty of Utrecht. The Government sent Admiral John Byng, with ten warships, to the Mediterranean. John Byng was a son of Admiral George Byng, who had won the battle of Cape Passaro against Spain in 1718. When he arrived off Port Mahon, in Minorca, he found the French already landed and their fleet at anchor. After fighting an indecisive action,

Byng resolved to leave Minorca to its fate, and consequently its Governor had to capitulate. His ships were about equal in number to the French, but somewhat lighter in guns. On his return Byng was tried by court-martial at Portsmouth, and found guilty of negligence. The penalty was death. The Admiral, who showed perfect calmness and dignity, was shot on the quarter-deck of the *Monarque*, on March 14, 1757.

The influence of Pitt. The war was clearly going badly when the great period of Pitt commenced, in June 1757. Braddock had been killed, and his expedition ruined; Minorca had been lost; the French in India had roused the Nabob of Bengal, Surajah Dowlah, against the British. Surajah Dowlah had captured Calcutta and perpetrated the crime associated with the name 'Black Hole' (June 1756).

Pitt began his great ministry in June 1757. Some little time was required for him to make his influence felt. 'I am sure that I can save this country, and nobody else can', he is reported (by Horace Walpole) to have said. Every one yielded to the magic of his enthusiasm. He came to power over a dispirited, unsuccessful people. He did not point out their defects and enlarge upon their difficulties; he spoke always as if the English were the greatest and happiest nation in the world, and he made them act as such. No one, it was said, ever left his room without feeling a braver man than when he entered it. He had a genius for choosing the right men; he inspired confidence in all. Thus Frederick II of Prussia, one of the greatest generals of the age, trusted him. The Navy and Army trusted him.

Pitt's war policy. Pitt's method of conducting war

with the French was to use the Navy to cut them off from their colonies. If this could be done, the French colonies would sooner or later fall before the English arms. It was necessary, however, to do some fighting in Europe, in order to protect Hanover and to exhaust France's military strength. For these reasons the Government had entered into alliance with Frederick II of Prussia. Pitt agreed to pay King Frederick about £700,000 a year; without this money, Prussia (a very poor state in those days) could not have carried on the struggle against the combined forces of Austria and France. A British army was sent to Germany—about 20,000 well-trained troops. They were put under an able German general, Ferdinand of Brunswick, a relative of King George II.

The command of the sea. The policy of the Admiralty during the Ministry of Pitt was masterly. France has only two really good ports, Brest on the Brittany coast and Toulon in the Mediterranean. Britain, on the other hand, is splendidly provided with natural harbours, which could take any size of ship then afloat. The south coast of England has a number of fine ports—for instance, Falmouth, Plymouth, Portsmouth. At the entrance to the Mediterranean Great Britain holds, as she held in the eighteenth century, the harbour and fort of Gibraltar. In the Seven Years' War (1756–63) the Admiralty used these ports as a base for a blockade against France. An English squadron was generally cruising in the neighbourhood of Brest or in the neighbourhood of Toulon. The British crews, constantly at sea in all sorts of foul weather, off Brest or Toulon, grew ever more hardened and expert. The French crews and ships, confined by the blockade to port, lost heart.

The French were brave sailors, but they had less experience at sea, and consequently were less daring.

The French used their Navy to convoy merchantmen so as to save them from the British cruisers, or to protect the islands and colonies of France in the New World. This was not the British way of using the Navy.

The officers of the British Navy had always been taught that their simple duty was to find out the enemy's fleet and to sink it. If they sunk the enemy's fleet, then, no matter what their own losses were, the command of the sea would remain with England. Even if the losses on each side were 'a ship for a ship', England, being more of a naval than a military power, could replace her losses more quickly than France, and so would still have the greater number.

The English Navy therefore became more and more enterprising and bold. They considered one thing only —namely, could they attack the enemy with a prospect of sinking at least as many hostile ships as the enemy could sink of the English?

Thus the British Navy was always at sea, always looking out for a chance to attack. It had one other great advantage. France, being washed by two seas, had to divide her naval power between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, between Brest and Toulon. The British fleet, cruising between Plymouth and Gibraltar, had always a good chance, if either the Brest or Toulon fleet escaped the blockade, of catching it before it could join with the other.

Lagos. Admiral Edward Boscawen belonged to a very ancient Cornish family. Edward was born in 1711. At the age of 14 he entered the Navy, and sailed in the *Superbe*, 60 guns, to the West Indies with Admiral

Hosier in 1726. Luckily for England, young Boscawen did not become one of the ghosts that figure in Glover's noble ballad; instead, he was serving on Admiral Vernon's flagship when Porto Bello was taken in 1740. From this time Boscawen saw almost continuous active service in the Atlantic and Indian Ocean. In 1758 he was admiral of the Blue and commander-in-chief of the fleet in the operations off Louisbourg. In 1759 he was given command of the squadron in the Mediterranean.

For a time he blockaded the Toulon fleet. Thinking it better, however, to destroy this fleet than to imprison it, he retired to Gibraltar. He knew that the French would sail for Brest, to take part in an invasion of England, which was being prepared in the north of France. On August 17, 1759, a scouting frigate reported to Boscawen that the Toulon fleet was in sight. The admiral at once put to sea, and on the 18th came into touch with the French fleet. The British had 14 ships, the French 12, but these were more heavily armed. Five French ships became separated by some mistake, and Boscawen, in a stiff fight which lasted from half-past one to half-past four in the afternoon, dispersed the enemy. They were chased into Lagos Bay. Only two of the French admiral's seven great ships escaped.

Quiberon Bay. Edward Lord Hawke was the only son of a London barrister, and was born in 1705. The Hawkes, like the Boscawens, were an old, though not wealthy, Cornish family. Young Edward must have had a great love for the sea, for he volunteered in 1719 as a seaman for service in the West Indian waters, and served for five years. On his return home he soon tired of life on land, and again joined the Navy as a seaman. In 1729 he was made a lieutenant. In 1735 he was

commanding a ship, but after he was paid off he was four years on half-pay without employment (1735–9). The War of Jenkins's Ear gave him his chance. He was given command of a very unseaworthy ship for service in the West Indies, and he was employed till 1746, when he was promoted to be rear-admiral of the White.

In 1759 Hawke was commander-in-chief of the British fleet in the North Atlantic blockading Brest. For six months the fleet never quitted the waters outside Brest; the ships were carefully victualled, and the crews of two or three ships at a time were sent to Plymouth for a rest. When the Admiralty found fault with him for thus weakening his force, Hawke replied: 'It is a matter of indifference whether I fight the enemy, if they should come out, with an equal number, one ship more or less.' 'The refreshment of the ships' companies', he said, 'was more important than the ships.'

On November 9 (1759) a terrible westerly gale compelled Hawke to sail to Torbay to refit. On the 14th he heard that the French fleet had left Brest. He at once put to sea in the *Royal George*, with all his ships. On the 20th one of the watching frigates announced that the fleet of the French admiral, Marshal de Conflans, had been sighted, and was making for Quiberon Bay, where they could station themselves behind dangerous rocks and shoals. Hawke gave chase, and, in a south-west gale, came up with and engaged Conflans's fleet before the French admiral could get into the bay. The engagement began at 2 p.m. on the 20th and went on till 5. One French ship, the *Formidable*, struck her colours; two were sunk. Next day Conflans's flagship was forced to run ashore. Four more were wrecked. The whole French fleet was broken up as the result of this brilliant

action in a storm. Two English ships, the *Resolute* and the *Essex*, suffered shipwreck.

The fight off Quiberon Bay, following upon that of Lagos, was the decisive battle of the war. The French sea-power was practically destroyed. Communications between France and India and Canada were broken. The fall of France's colonial empire followed on her losing command of the sea.

Minden (August 1, 1759). Pitt, in a famous sentence when speaking in the debate (1763) on the Treaty of Paris, said, 'we were winning America on the plains of Germany'. France's military strength was being exhausted on German battle-fields, while Britain was gaining the sea, and with the sea the French empire.

Near the town of Minden the greatest British battle of the Seven Years' War was fought. Ferdinand of Brunswick had about 41,000 British and Hanoverian troops; the French Marshal Contades had 51,000.

The battle began at three o'clock on the morning of August 1, 1759. The rival armies were evenly matched. The fight went on without result until the commander of the British troops felt that it was time to use the fine column which he was keeping in reserve. Ferdinand warned his troops to stand ready for an advance. To the amazement of the watching staff the drums began to roll, and the column moved forward.

Soon it was beyond all supports, and exposed to the fire of sixty powerful French cannon. Over a distance of two hundred yards it calmly advanced through a storm of shot, the ranks steadily closing together, as men were killed or fell out wounded. Then the whole mass of French cavalry came on at the charge, but the column, remaining quiet till the horses were only ten paces off,

received them with a volley, and next with the bayonet. The cavalry were beaten off.

This was the critical moment. Once more the French cavalry charged upon the solitary British column, which met them with perfect coolness and determination, and again—this time finally—drove them off the field, and the battle was won.

George III. On October 25, 1760, George II died. The new king, George III, was anxious above all to restore the royal authority, and to rest his power upon support from the people. He was a Tory, and had no wish to interfere on the Continent of Europe. Besides, the war had done its work. The battle of Minden had saved Hanover; Lagos and Quiberon Bay had secured us command of the sea; the battles of Plassey (1757) and Wandiwash (1760) made the English predominant in India; and the glorious campaign of Wolfe in Quebec, in 1759, added Canada to the British Empire.

GEORGE III

Accordingly, George III and his Tory advisers, especially the Scotsman, Lord Bute, were ready to make peace; but Pitt was opposed to this. In 1761 France and Spain agreed to make war upon England, if peace

were not made before May 1762. Pitt urged that war should be at once declared on Spain. George III refused, and Pitt resigned (October 5, 1761). He was offered the position of Governor of Canada, the great country which his statesmanship had added to the British Crown. He chose, however, to remain in political life in England.

In January 1762 Bute's Government declared war on Spain. The commander-in-chief of the Leeward Islands station, Rear-Admiral Rodney (aged 44 at this time), captured Martinique, St. Lucia, and Granada. Havana was taken in the same year (1762). Yet Bute had begun to arrange for peace before the news of these conquests arrived. The final treaty was signed at Paris on February 10, 1763.

The Treaty of Paris. The Treaty of Paris ended the great Seven Years' War between England and France for overseas empire. Canada was recognized as wholly within the British Empire. The only lands left to France, out of her great North American empire, were the tiny islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, which were restored by England, to be a resting-place for French fishermen. England retained the fine West Indian islands of Tobago, Dominica, Grenada; Martinique and St. Lucia were given back to France. Minorca was restored to England, which also received Florida from Spain; but both Minorca and Florida were lost by England in the War of American Independence. France got back all her Indian trading-ports, though without the right to fortify them.

The Peace of Paris was violently denounced by Pitt, who, though ill, struggled down to the House, and spoke for three hours and twenty-six minutes. After the

magnificent successes of 1759 he had hoped to leave no colonies at all to France, and to secure the English position for ever in North America and India. Nevertheless, although imperfect in Pitt's eyes, the Peace of Paris made Britain the greatest colonial power of the world.

CHAPTER XXIII

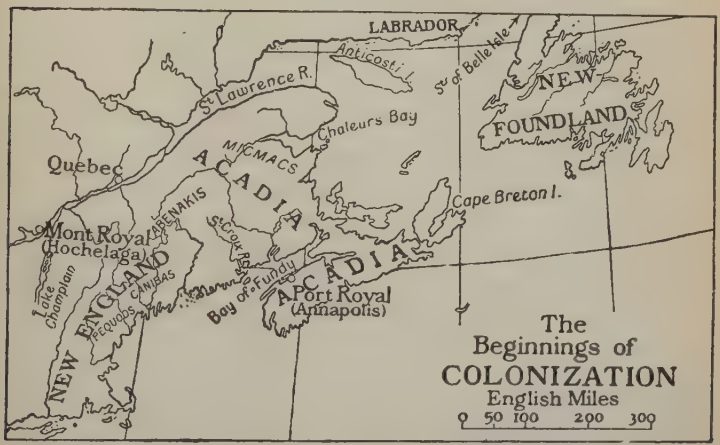
THE CONQUEST OF CANADA

Early History. The Colony of Canada (an Indian name) was founded as the result of voyages made in 1534 and 1535 by Jacques Cartier, of St. Malo. A considerable number of French emigrated to New France in the seventeenth century, particularly in the reign of Louis XIV; Huguenots hoped there to escape from religious persecution, while younger sons of good Catholic families went for the sake of the good landed estates which they received from the Crown on easy terms. A kind of feudal system was established which endured to the middle of the nineteenth century, and of which traces exist at the present time.

English Possessions. The French, however, could not lay claim to the whole of the country. In 1670 Charles II granted to Prince Rupert and a company of adventurers all the territory watered by streams flowing into Hudson's Bay. This vast tract was owned and governed by the Hudson's Bay Company till the year 1869. In 1713, by the Treaty of Utrecht, the British Empire obtained Acadie (or Nova Scotia). The first settlement in it had been made by Sir William Alexander, a Scotsman (hence the name Nova Scotia), in 1621, but the French had held

possession of it from the year 1632. Newfoundland, which is closely associated with Canada, was English since the early years of the seventeenth century, but was formally ceded by the same treaty (1713) to England.

Duquesne. In 1753 the Marquis Duquesne, a great French governor, sent out an expedition which cut roads through the forests and built forts—rough but



strong structures of logs. The most important of these was Fort Duquesne, on the Ohio.

Braddock. Two expeditions were sent out from Virginia to capture Fort Duquesne. The first was led by George Washington, of Mount Vernon, a colonel in the Virginian militia; it failed, however, and Washington himself was captured, but soon afterwards was released (1754). Next year a distinguished regular officer, Major-General Braddock, of the Coldstream Guards, led another expedition. George Washington was again serving (this time on the staff of the general). On July 9,

1755, the British forces were ambushed, and forced to retreat with terrible losses. Braddock, who had led his men with the greatest bravery in the fight, died in camp a few days afterwards. The expedition is described in Thackeray's *Virginians*.

The Acadians. In the same year the English Government expelled from Nova Scotia all the French families who would not take the oath of allegiance to King George II—an incident which Longfellow's *Evangeline* describes. In 1756 the Seven Years' War had begun. At first things did not go well with the English, for Montcalm, who commanded the French forces in Canada, was a man of the highest character and of great ability. In 1756 he captured Fort Oswego on Lake Ontario, and in 1757 took Fort William Henry on Lake George. The capture of Fort William Henry is famous in the annals of colonial history, owing to the massacre of many of the men and women who were in it by Montcalm's Indians; the story of this has been told by Fenimore Cooper in *The Last of the Mohicans*.

Pitt. Pitt, who had become Secretary of State in 1757, soon made his influence felt, even in far-away Canada. He at once saw how to deal with the situation, and thought of a plan which, if the British fleet should continue to command the sea, was sure, in the end, to be successful.

There were in Canada about 20,000 French troops; of these 4,000 were regular regiments; the rest were chiefly local militia. They were not very well supplied with munitions, and when the British fleet gained command of the sea they could get little direct support from France. Pitt increased the British regular troops in Canada to about 20,000 men, and to command them

chose General Amherst, who was forty-one years old, James Wolfe, who was brigadier under Amherst, aged thirty-one, and General Abercromby, an old soldier of great experience and skill; under Abercromby was another young brigadier, Lord Howe, aged thirty-three, one of three brothers all of whom rose to high distinction in the Navy or Army.

Louisbourg and Ticonderoga. The first step in the conquest of Canada was to take Louisbourg, the capital of Cape Breton Island, which commanded the mouth of the St. Lawrence. Amherst led the army and Admiral Boscawen the fleet (June–July 1758). The town was captured; the fortifications were destroyed; since then the town has greatly declined, its trade passing to Halifax, the capital of Nova Scotia.

In the same year, on June 4, 1758, General Abercromby, advancing from Albany (the capital of New York State) on the Hudson River, attacked Ticonderoga. In a skirmish during the march Lord Howe was killed, to the regret of every one, for he was considered the most promising officer in the British Army. In the attack on the fort, which was held by Montcalm in person, Abercromby's force was repulsed and forced to retreat. The Royal Highlanders (Black Watch) lost 500 men; the fight is celebrated in a magnificent ballad by Robert Louis Stevenson. Abercromby after his repulse did not remain idle; a brilliant success was scored in August by sending Colonel Bradstreet with 3,600 men up the Mohawk River. Bradstreet crossed Lake Ontario, and captured Fort Frontenac. This success interfered with the French communications down the Ohio, so that General Forbes, a very capable Scottish soldier who commanded in Virginia, was able to bring up a force from

the south and to take Fort Duquesne. The place was renamed Fort Pitt, and later Pittsburg.

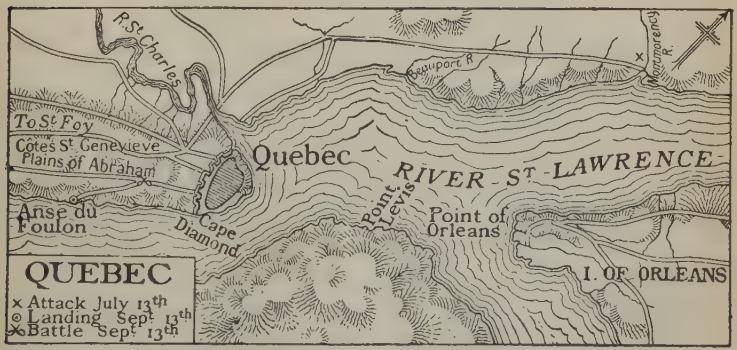
Wolfe. The officer who had been specially chosen by Pitt to command the expedition against Quebec was the ablest of the younger soldiers in the Army. James Wolfe was born at Westerham in Kent on January 2, 1727. After being sent to a private school, he became an ensign in the 12th Foot (now the Suffolk Regiment) when he was fourteen years old, and next year he fought throughout the campaign of Dettingen. At the battle itself he was acting-adjutant. He next served in the Duke of Cumberland's campaigns of 1745, and fought at Culloden. At the age of 23 he was made Lieutenant-Colonel of the 20th Foot (Lancashire Fusiliers).

Wolfe was a man of the most attractive character. In private life he was gentle, courteous, kindly, fond of society and of sport. In his profession he was the keenest of soldiers, employing all his spare time in reading and educating himself for his duties. In appearance he was tall and slightly built, with red hair; contrary to the usual practice, he wore no wig.

The Siege of Quebec. Quebec is situated near the junction of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles. It stands on a steep, rocky promontory at the end of a long line of cliffs which form the northern bank of the river above the city. On the opposite side of the river, which is under one mile broad here, is another high promontory, Point Levis. Just below the harbour of Quebec is the island of Orleans, on which the French had erected batteries, and which contributed to the strength of the city.

The force with which Wolfe was to attack one of the strongest places in the world, held by 16,000 men

(French regular troops, Canadian militia, and Indians) under one of the ablest commanders, numbered only 9,000. The opposing leaders were finely matched; Montcalm—experienced, scientific, cool; Wolfe—enthusiastic, daring, skilful. After sailing up the St. Lawrence, some of the transports were driven ashore by a storm, on June 27 (1759). Wolfe, however, was able to occupy the island of Orleans and Point Levis, and to mount his batteries against the city.



For the next two and a half months the siege was unsuccessful, and the attempts to take the city itself by assault failed with great loss of life. In the middle of August Wolfe himself was prostrated by fever, and it appeared as if the whole expedition must fail; he wrote to his mother that he would leave the Army, for he considered that his reputation was ruined and his career at an end. Yet he would not abandon the struggle until he had tried every possible way. On August 29, having recovered from the fever, he held a council of war with his brigadiers. They unanimously recom-

mended that a great effort should be made from the west side, above the city.

The Heights of Abraham. Accordingly, at the beginning of September strong detachments were sent up the river, while, to distract Montcalm's attention, minor attacks were made against Quebec itself. Wolfe, anxiously surveying through a telescope the steep north bank of the St. Lawrence above the city, had noticed a path which ascended from a little cove to the plateau above. At the top of the path a French picket could be seen. Wolfe calculated that a party of his men might land by night at the cove, ascend the path and surprise the picket. The way would then be clear for more troops to come up to the plateau, where they would form a line of battle. The plan was clearly most risky; it was to be carried out by night, over unfamiliar ground; it required perfect training, organization, and discipline; the smallest mistake might ruin it.

About 2 o'clock on the morning of September 13 boatloads of soldiers were moved down the river with the ebbing tide. Before starting Wolfe issued an order:

'The officers and men will remember what their country expects from them, and what a determined body of soldiers are capable of doing against five weak battalions, mingled with a disorderly peasantry. The soldiers must be attentive to their officers, and resolute in the execution of their duty.'

As his boat dropped down with the tide, in the silence and solemnity of the night, he is said to have repeated the stately, moving lines of Gray's *Elegy*:

> The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
> And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
> Await alike th' inevitable hour:
> The paths of glory lead but to the grave.

About 4 a.m. they came to what is now called Wolfe's Cove, about a mile and a half above the city. The first boat to ground at the shore contained twenty-four men. Wolfe's boat came next. The path up the steep wooded height was successfully scaled, and the unwary picket surprised and captured. Detachment after detachment followed ; and before six o'clock, when full daylight had come, 4,000 British soldiers were marching towards Quebec. About a mile from the city Wolfe halted his men and drew them up in line of battle. From their

MEDAL COMMEMORATING THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC AND DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE

position on the Heights of Abraham, as this part of the plateau on which Quebec stands is called, they threatened the city, and Montcalm at last must come out and fight. For the British, victory meant Canada ; a defeat would sweep them off the cliff.

Montcalm had been out all night, for Admiral Saunders, who commanded the British ships, had been making a feint of landing in the meadows below Quebec. About 6 a.m., as the French general was riding towards the city, he heard that the British were on the Heights of Abraham. There was no time for delay, as Wolfe might bring up guns and make Quebec untenable. So Montcalm at once got his men together and marched forth

with a force of 5,000 (the rest of his forces were left to garrison the town). No artillery or cavalry were used on either side. It was a purely infantry battle.

The fight began some time before ten o'clock. The French came on to the attack. Wolfe reserved his fire till the enemy were within forty yards ; with admirable discipline the British waited for the word of command,

LIFE ON THE HUDSON RIVER. A DOG CARIOLE

and then discharged their pieces with deadly effect. The French line was broken and a series of charges by the British infantry completed the rout. It was when putting himself at the head of the last charge that Wolfe received a fatal wound ; Montcalm too was shot, trying to get the remnant of his troops back to Quebec ; he died in the city on the following morning. Wolfe died on the field of battle, having just heard that the victory was won. His body was brought back to England and buried in the vault of Greenwich Parish Church, where

his father, who was also a British general, had been buried only six months earlier.

The Fall of Canada. Quebec capitulated to Wolfe's second-in-command, General Murray, on September 18. In the spring of 1760 Montcalm's able lieutenant, Levis, made a determined attempt from Montreal to retake Quebec, and actually defeated General Murray. The

THE GOVERNOR OF THE RED RIVER IN A LIGHT CANOE

English were driven back into the city, and had to remain on the defensive.

On May 9, 1760, it was rumoured among both besiegers and besieged that a fleet was coming up the St. Lawrence. Both sides waited in breathless expectation; if it was a French fleet, then Quebec would fall to the French; but if it was English, the French hold upon Canada was finally doomed. As the ships rounded Point Levis, the English flag was hoisted at the mastheads. General Levis retired from before Quebec.

Towards the end of summer (1760) a triple advance was successfully made against the last great French city,

Montreal, and the last French governor of Canada, the Marquis de Vaudreuil, surrendered to the English.

By the Treaty of Paris, February 10, 1763, Canada passed from France to the British Empire.

The Hudson's Bay Company. Great Britain had already held dominion for nearly a hundred years over the north-west of Canada. This was owing to the work of *The Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay.* This company, which was established for trading purposes, by Royal Charter, in 1670, owned and governed all the land watered by the rivers which flowed into Hudson's Bay. It built forts, and traded its stores—food and articles of European manufacture—for the Indians' furs. The company never sold intoxicating drink, and was always trusted and well liked by the Indians. It surrendered its powers of government to the Dominion of Canada in 1869, but it continues to exist as a trading company.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE WAR OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE

The ascendancy of the Crown. George III, when he became king, in 1760, was twenty-two years old. He was a thorough Englishman, proud of his country, fond of the people, good-natured, respectable, obstinate. Although the early part of his reign was a failure, and he had to pass through a period of unpopularity, he lived to be a popular figure in the country. The domestic life of the first two Georges had not been good. Neither was the life of George IV. The third George was an upright man, living a simple life, not extravagant.

He resided a great deal at Windsor Castle, and used to walk much in the Forest and along the roads around the town. He was a familiar figure to every one for miles around, and was especially known to the schoolboys of Eton, whom he would often stop at the roadside, pat on the head, and ask kindly questions. Many stories, some true, some made up, have been told of him. It is said that, walking in the grounds of Windsor Castle, he stopped to ask a gardener's boy what he earned. The boy discontentedly said : ' Meat and drink, a bed, a fire, and a roof.' ' Why, that 's all I get,' said the good-natured king, as he walked away.

Personal rule. When he succeeded to the throne George III felt that the time had come for the King to get to know his people better. During the last two reigns the great families had had more power than the King himself. In order to take away this power George had to dismiss ministers who were popular, and appoint others who he knew would carry out his plans.

The great movements. The long reign of George III, from 1760 to 1820, included some of the most important events in the history of the world. There was the American Revolution, which produced a powerful, free, and high-minded nation on the other side of the Atlantic. In Europe there was the French Revolution ; there were also the Napoleonic Wars. At home there was the great ' Industrial Revolution ', the establishing of factories with steam-power which transformed England from an agricultural and trading nation into a great manufacturing country, with enormous towns and a huge industrial population. All the problems of life which we have to-day troubled the people during the Industrial Revolution—the problem of overcrowding in cities, dis-

content of labourers against employers, the rise in prices, the problem of poor relief. Outside the island, in the 'larger air' of the Empire, vast tracts of India were being annexed, Australia was being settled, the South African Dutch were being brought within the British rule, Canada was working out a 'way of life' between English and French.

The King, owing to his frequent change of Prime Ministers, was gradually becoming unpopular. This feeling was greatly increased by the actions of the famous John Wilkes.

Wilkes was born in 1727, the son of a distiller in Clerkenwell. He received a good education at private schools, and as a young man became known for his wit, his literary taste and ability, and also for his extravagance and dissipation. In 1757 he obtained a seat in Parliament for the borough of Aylesbury. In 1762 he began to produce a weekly journal called the *North Briton*. In Number 45 of the journal his criticisms of the King's Speech amounted almost to giving the lie to the King, and accordingly the Home Secretary issued a General Warrant for the apprehension of any one concerned in the article. General Warrants were afterwards declared illegal—a very good result, for no one would be safe from imprisonment if the police were authorized to arrest people in general on mere suspicion.

The next step which Wilkes gained in the march towards liberty was in 1769. He had got into various kinds of trouble, including a duel, and had been outlawed. When he came back in 1768 he stood as a member of Parliament for Middlesex and was successful, but was not allowed to take his seat by the House of Commons.

He was four times elected, and at last the House declared that his opponent, Colonel Luttrell, was duly returned. This action of the House caused a storm of indignation, being especially held up to scorn by the *Letters of Junius*. These letters appeared in the *Public Advertiser* between the years 1769 and 1772, in which year they began also to be issued in book form; their authorship has never been discovered.

'Wilkes and Liberty' became so popular that he was elected Lord Mayor of London. Thus this noisy politician, so much a mixture of bad and good, could say when he died in 1797 that he had destroyed General Warrants, had established freedom of elections, and had confirmed the liberty of the Press.

George III had himself been Wilkes's most determined opponent.

The American Colonies. The circumstances of the rebellion of the thirteen British Colonies in North America are memorable, for they produced, on the one hand, the United States of America, with its ideals of freedom; on the other hand, through the experience gained by the British, the modern self-governing British Empire grew.

Under the old colonial system each colony stood by itself. Each had its own Governor, appointed by the Home Government; and each had a Legislative Assembly, which passed local Acts and voted the Governor's salary. In this way the Colonies enjoyed a large amount of self-government. The New England Colonies had a hardy population of farmers, strongly Presbyterian, well educated, with fine colleges at Harvard and at Yale. The southern Colonies contained large estates, growing tobacco and cotton, cultivated by slave labour. There

the manor-houses, and to a certain extent the lives, of the squires of the Old Country were reproduced on American soil. Thackeray's *Virginians* gives a good picture of this life.

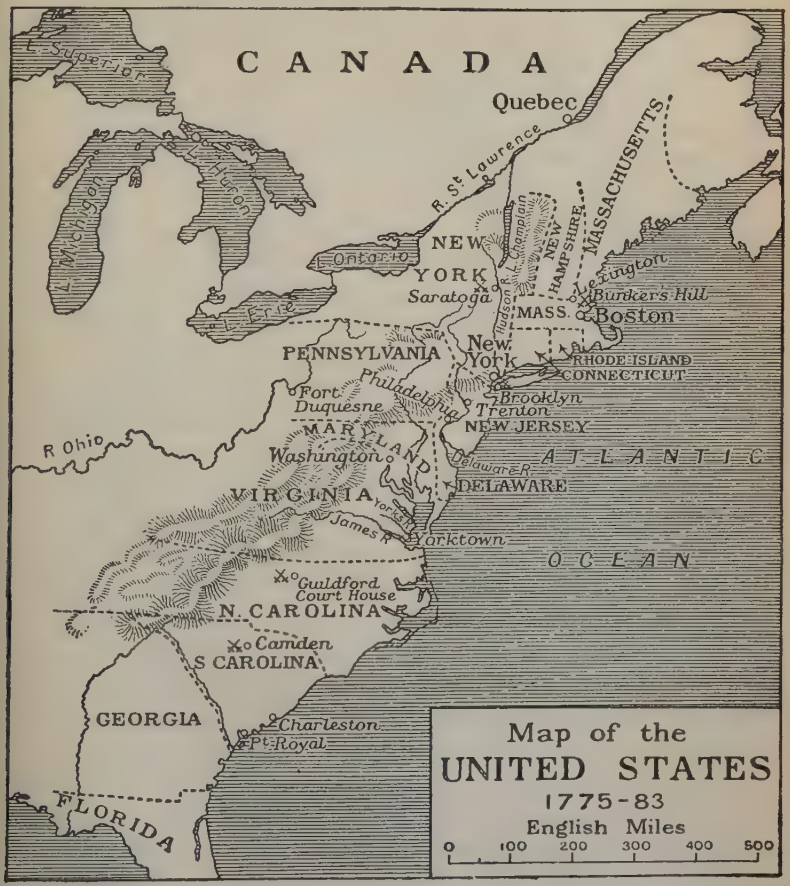
Causes of friction. It was not till after 1750 that discontent on the part of the Colonies with the Mother Country began to appear.

The Navigation Acts caused a certain amount of friction. They prevented foreign ships from entering colonial ports. This made trading with foreign countries very difficult. In 1750 an Act was passed in which certain articles were named which were forbidden to be manufactured in the Colonies, and which, therefore, had to be purchased from Great Britain. Thus, for instance, the Pennsylvanians might mine and export iron-ore, but they could not manufacture it into bar or pig-iron.

The Stamp Act. In 1765, under the premiership of George Grenville, a Stamp Act was passed. This Act imposed a fee, varying from 3*d.* to £10, on all legal documents in the Colonies. The object of the tax was to supply £100,000, which was one-third of the sum required to pay the military forces in North America. Britain was to pay for the other two-thirds.

Until 1765 each colony, in its Legislative Assembly, had controlled its own direct taxes. Grenville, however, argued, with some reason, that it would be impossible to get each of the thirteen Colonies, in thirteen separate Assemblies, to vote the exact share of the tax which they ought to pay. On the other hand, the colonists would not agree to being taxed directly by a Parliament, sitting thousands of miles away, in which they had no representation.

Burke in one of his great speeches said it was unwise to impose this tax, and that the amount of money to



be got, in comparison with the loyal colonies to be lost, was not worth bothering about.

In 1766 the Stamp Act was repealed. Next year,

however, the Duke of Grafton's Ministry, after the Earl of Chatham (the title which Pitt received in 1766) had fallen ill and left it, passed an Act which imposed about £40,000 worth of duty on imports into the American Colonies.

In 1770 Lord North became Premier. George III insisted that he should maintain the right of the British Parliament to tax the Colonies.

Two months after Lord North had become Prime Minister, a riot occurred in Boston, the troops had to be called out, and three citizens were killed. This event was magnified in public opinion under the name of the 'Boston Massacre' (March 1770). Two years later one of the British revenue schooners, the *Gaspee*, was boarded and burned while it was lying at Providence in Rhode Island. The authors of this daring act were never discovered. In 1773 the British Government allowed the East India Company to export tea from its warehouses in London, without paying the English duty, to America. The colonists would thus be able to buy tea cheaply, for it would only have to pay the small duty at American ports. But when the tea-ships came to Boston they were not allowed by the populace to land their cargoes; and before they could leave they were boarded by a party of men disguised as Mohawk Indians, and the tea was thrown into the sea. The Government punished the town for this 'Boston Tea-party' by closing the port to commerce. The result was the outbreak of war in April 1775 and the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776.

Causes of the British failure. The seven years' war which followed, honourably waged on both sides, was disastrous for England. Compared with the British

people, the colonists were inferior in numbers, wealth, and resources of every kind. Nor were they superior in leadership; there were good and bad leaders on both sides, but Clinton and Cornwallis were probably as good generals as Washington or any American. The colonial officers knew the country better, and their knowledge and training gave them an advantage. Broadly considered, however, the defeat of the Mother Country may be said to have been due to three things: to mismanagement at home, to the distance across the Atlantic, and to the vast and roadless spaces of the Colonies.

The administration of the Home Government was not good. The Army and Navy had been neglected.

The distance across the Atlantic made it difficult to send sufficient forces to America, and made sea-power more than ever important. Unfortunately, the naval policy of the Admiralty was not well directed. After France joined the Americans, in 1778, the French fleet was thrown into the scale against England. Admiral Howe advised that the bulk of the fleet should stay in European waters and blockade the French ports. Thus the French fleet would either be shut up, or it would come out against the blockade and probably be destroyed. This was not done, so the French fleet was allowed to sail in colonial waters, and in 1781 it obtained sufficient command of the sea to bring about the capitulation of General Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown—the decisive action of the war.

The vast extent of the country over which the English forces had to move gave splendid opportunities to the American colonists to beset the red-coats, much as the French and Indians had beset Braddock's men near Fort Duquesne. The unfortunate campaign of General

Burgoyne in 1777, ending with the capitulation of Saratoga Springs, shows the dangers of operating without enormous resources in men, supplies, and transport among the forests and lakes of eastern Canada and New York State.

The operations of the war. The American Army was an untrained militia, but under Washington it gradually showed itself skilful in the style of fighting which suited the trackless nature of much of the country.

The British commanders showed extraordinary slowness in following up the victories which they secured at the beginning of the war. They seem to have held back, in the hope that some peaceful settlement of the dispute might be arranged. The chief successes of the British in the early days were at Bunker's Hill, and against the American invasion of Canada.

Bunker's Hill. The battle of Bunker's Hill was fought on June 17, 1775. About 4,000 of the colonists had seized this hill and one other—Breed's Hill—commanding the town of Boston. A British force of about 2,000 men tried to take the hills by storm, but were driven back by American sharpshooters.

In the winter of this year, 1775, the Americans invaded Canada, which they expected to rise in sympathy with them. The invaders were defeated by the local Canadian militiamen under the command of the British Governor, Lord Dorchester. In May Quebec was relieved by a British fleet, and the Americans were driven out of the colony.

The threefold scheme. There were three groups of British forces which did most of the fighting. The first was called the army of New York, the second that of Canada, the third that of the South. New York was

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actually in possession of the Americans, and the great object of the army of New York, under General Howe, was to take it. The British forces, which included German mercenaries, were about equal in number to the American.

The battle of Brooklyn, fought on August 27, 1776, ended with the rout of Washington's army, and New York was recovered. Four months later, however, on Christmas Day (1776), Washington captured the whole German garrison of Trenton.

In 1777 Howe did something to rectify his mistakes of the previous year by taking Philadelphia.

The army of Canada. The army of Canada was a force of about 7,000 British soldiers, under General Burgoyne, a capable soldier. His plan was to join forces with General Clinton at New York, but as they were separated by hundreds of miles of unknown country the scheme ended in failure. On October 9 Burgoyne's small army struggled into Saratoga village in the Hudson valley: 'the men', wrote Burgoyne, 'for the most part had not strength or inclination to cut wood and make fires, but rather sought sleep in their wet clothes, upon the wet ground, under the continuing rain'. On the 17th the army capitulated to General Schuyler, who had 16,000 men. This notable success of the Americans revived their cause everywhere; it put out of action a force of British soldiers who could not easily be replaced; and—most important of all results—it decided the Government of France and—soon afterwards—that of Spain to join in the struggle against England. The war became European, and indeed world-wide. Britain, assailed on the sea, in America, and in India, found the strain too much.

The army of the south. Generals Clinton and Cornwallis were the heroes of the war in the south. In 1780 Clinton took Charleston, and recovered a great portion of South and North Carolina. After a time he was recalled to New York, to meet fresh dangers there, and Lord Cornwallis was left behind with about 4,000 men. Under him was a younger soldier, Lord Rawdon (aged 26), as second in command. Both these men were to be known later as among the finest of the Governors-General of India. As soldiers they showed great courage. In 1781 Cornwallis decided to fight his way northwards, to join, if possible, with the army of New York. Collecting all the forces in the south, he took up a dangerous position in Yorktown.

Yorktown. A peninsula, eight miles broad, juts out into the sea, with the River York on the north and the River James on the south. The village of Yorktown is on the high southern bank of the York. Cornwallis had 7,000 men when Washington began to draw round it with 18,000 men, including a division of French under the Marquis of Lafayette (September 28, 1781). The village was not a good place for defence; and when it became clear that Sir Henry Clinton could not come to his relief by land, nor the Navy by sea, Cornwallis had nothing to do but to cut his way out or to surrender. A gallant sortie was made, but failed in the face of overwhelming numbers. The enemy's batteries commanded the whole village and camp, and there was no choice between fruitless destruction and capitulation. On October 18 the negotiations were concluded. The British forces were to march out with the honours of war, and then to remain prisoners.

It was the temporary loss of the command of the sea

by the British Navy that caused the fall of Yorktown, the final disaster of the American War.

Naval operations. Some splendid actions were fought by the Navy. The Americans, under the able Scottish sailor, Paul Jones, began the fine traditions of the United States Navy.

In 1780 Admiral Rodney, on his way to the West Indian Station, met the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent. Out of the enemy's twelve ships, four were sunk, four captured, and four escaped. Gibraltar, which the Spanish beleaguered as soon as they entered into the war (1778), was relieved. By the end of 1780 the Dutch had also joined the others against Britain.

In 1781 (February) Rodney's fleet captured the little Dutch island of St. Eustatia, and found it to be one vast magazine of supplies for the Americans. This capture was so valuable that the Admiral delayed at the island to arrange for transporting the goods to England.

In August, while Rodney was still at St. Eustatia, the French admiral, Comte de Grasse, appeared off the Chesapeake with eight-and-twenty sail. Admiral Graves and Sir Samuel Hood between them had only nineteen. On September 5 these two sailors led their small fleet to meet the French, to do what they could to destroy it. The task, however, was beyond their powers, and after a skilfully fought action, lasting several days, the fleets separated. Graves had to put back to New York (which was still in English hands); de Grasse sailed to Yorktown. For a few weeks the British Navy did not command the sea, and this was the reason why Yorktown could not be relieved, and why Cornwallis had to surrender with his brave men to Washington.

In May 1782 instructions were sent out to the West

Indies for the recall of Admiral Rodney; before the letter was dispatched, he had won his greatest victory. On April 8, 1782, Comte de Grasse, with thirty-three sail of the line, and with five thousand troops, left Port Royal in Martinique to capture the fine British island of Jamaica. Rodney's cruisers brought him word to St. Lucia, and within two hours he was sailing off to meet the French.

On April 11 Rodney's ships had drawn near to the French. He bore straight down upon the enemy fleet and ' broke the line '.

The French fleet, cut asunder, fell into confusion. The French admiral's ship, *La Ville de Paris*, struck its flag when only three men were left alive on the upper deck, one of them being Admiral de Grasse himself. This fight has been called the battle of Saintes, after a small island in the vicinity.

Siege of Gibraltar. The news of Rodney's victory was gladly welcomed by the British people after the depressing days of the American War. The defence of Gibraltar was another glorious episode in Britain's history. Spain had joined in the war after Saratoga, and at once besieged Gibraltar. General Elliot, a veteran of the Seven Years' War, with five thousand soldiers, defended it with splendid bravery and constancy. Stores ran short, and thistles and dandelions had to be used for food. Rodney's victory off Cape St. Vincent in 1780 enabled the fleet to relieve and revictual the fortress, but afterwards it was closely besieged again. After another year, when stores had almost given out, Admiral Darby brought a second relief convoy safely into port (1781). The Spaniards kept up a terrific bombardment, firing from their cannon, in six weeks,

50,000 shot and 20,000 shell into the little town. Elliot conducted a brilliant defence, with wonderfully small loss of life to the British. Early in 1782 the French captured Minorca, and then added their forces to those of the Spaniards in front of Gibraltar—in all there were 33,000 men, with 170 pieces of artillery, besieging 5,000 British soldiers and 2,000 marines and sailors on the Rock.

The great effort of the French and Spanish was made in September 1782. Ten huge rafts were constructed in the port of Algeciras. They were to carry 142 pieces of artillery, to blow the fortress to pieces. General Elliot heard of the design, and prepared to meet the floating batteries with red-hot shot, which his soldiers called 'roasted potatoes'. On September 13 the rafts were floated to within 600 yards of the British defences, and a lively cannonade ensued. The red-hot balls of the defenders were highly successful. Eight of the floating batteries were destroyed by fire; the blaze that came from them lit up the Rock (it was night-time) with a lurid glare. French and Spanish sailors and artillery-men could be seen flinging themselves into the water and clinging to spars and wreckage. The Marine Brigade was sent down to help them, and by this means 300 of the enemy were saved from drowning.

The assault of the floating batteries was the last serious effort of the besiegers; the Rock remained British.

On September 3, 1783, three treaties were signed, with France, Spain, and the United States. The three treaties constitute the Peace of Versailles. By the treaty with France, Great Britain confirmed the right of the French to fish on and off the northern shore of

Newfoundland (a privilege dating from the Peace of Utrecht), and restored Senegal in West Africa. The islands of Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, St. Kitts, Nevis, and Montserrat were retained by Great Britain, but Tobago was ceded to France (and not recovered till 1814). Spain recovered Minorca and Florida. Peace was also made a little later with Holland (1784). The treaty with the United States recognized their full and complete independence.

Fortunately, towards the end of the American War, there was coming to the front a young statesman who was to be equally influential with King and people. This was the younger Pitt. When George's minister was also the people's chosen minister, a conflict between King and people could not arise, and so Britain passed through the troubled period of the French Revolution without any serious trouble to her Government.

CHAPTER XXV

THE REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD

William Pitt. This was the second son of the great Earl of Chatham. He was born on May 28, 1759, the wonderful year of victories—Minden, Lagos, Quiberon Bay, Quebec. Unlike all the other great statesmen of the period, he never went to a public school. His health was very weak, and accordingly he was kept at home, and educated by a private tutor. At the age of seven he was able to talk about politics, and at the age of fourteen years he is said to have discussed questions with something of the wit and wisdom of the great

Chatham. When fifteen years old, he was sent to Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, where he resided for the next seven years. For the first two years at college he spent a very quiet life. He was strictly regular in his habits, attended the college chapel morning and evening, seldom went to parties, and by the end of his residence had mastered almost the whole of Greek and Latin literature. During his last year at Cambridge he made frequent visits to London, to listen to the debates in Parliament, and was present in the House of Lords on April 7, 1778, when his father made the great speech against granting independence to the Americans. Later in the debate Chatham had attempted a reply to the Opposition, but had fallen back in a swoon, which led to his death a month later, at the age of 70.

THE YOUNGER PITT

Pitt obtained, through family interest, a seat in Parliament for the 'pocket' borough of Appleby. Although only twenty-one years of age, he spoke with such confidence and eloquence that he always commanded the attention of his hearers. In 1782 Pitt, who was then only twenty-three years old, became Chancellor of the

Exchequer. A year later, in December 1783, to the astonishment of Parliament and the country, King George offered the greatest position under the Crown, the post of Prime Minister of Great Britain, to Pitt, aged 24.

Within a year the Prime Minister was the idol of the whole country. King and people both trusted him, and the popularity of the Crown steadily increased.

All Pitt's interest was in peace. The great inventions which brought about the Industrial Revolution were making Britain into a hive of factories and workshops. It was Pitt's task to set trade free to take advantage of these inventions. His policy was directed chiefly to three things: one was to pay off a large part of the National Debt; the second was to reduce customs duties; the third was to make representation in Parliament more simple and fair.

With regard to the National Debt, Pitt wished to set aside a sum of money every year until a large amount of the debt could be paid off with it. A large National Debt checks trade, because the Government has to raise heavy taxes in order to pay the interest on the debt.

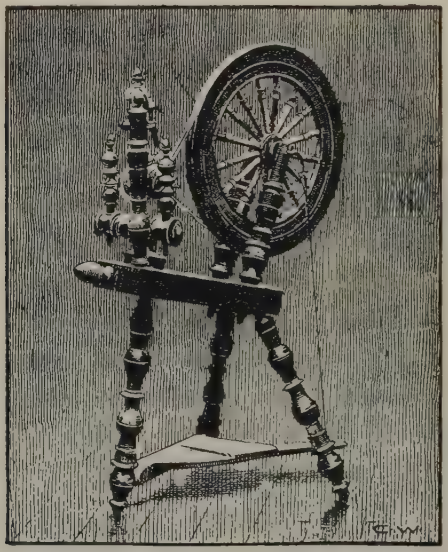
The customs and taxation. In the eighteenth century there was an immense amount of smuggling. The customs duties on spirits, wine, tobacco, and many other things were so high that enormous profits could be made by any importer who could escape paying the duties. In all the ports round the coast there were men who went out to sea in swift little schooners or sloops on dark nights, met some French or Dutch boat, shipped their kegs or bales, and then ran for some lonely creek. There were regular agents in the large towns who received these illegal goods and disposed of them in the way of ordinary

trade. There was something romantic about smuggling; the beautiful cliffs and caves of Cornwall, the wild coasts of the west of Scotland, provided endless opportunities. In the present day one can follow the paths, marked by whitewashed stones, which the coastguards made round the coasts of the south of England, in their ceaseless watch for smugglers. Yet the romances which have grown up round the careers of smugglers, like the powerful novel of Scott—*Guy Mannering*—or the charming unfinished novel of Thackeray—*Denis Duval*—must not blind us to the fact that smuggling was a bad business, which cheated the revenue, and that other people had to pay more in taxes in order to make up what the revenue lost. Moreover, the smugglers were a brutal class of people. In lonely districts they horribly ill-treated every one who would not help them. Smuggling, however, has now almost disappeared.

Pitt reduced the tax upon tea very considerably. On the other hand, he imposed a tax on windows in all houses which had more than seven. This is the reason why in many of the older houses in England some of the window-spaces are still blind—bricked up. He also introduced the income-tax in order to help to pay for the French War.

The Industrial Revolution. The term 'Industrial Revolution' means the system of making things on a great scale, with the help of steam-power in large factories, as compared with the old system of making goods in people's cottages or in their own shops in the towns. The change was due to the wonderfully improved use of coal in the latter half of the eighteenth century. Digging for coal, on a very small scale, went on in England all through the Middle Ages, when it was chiefly used in London and was called sea-coal, because

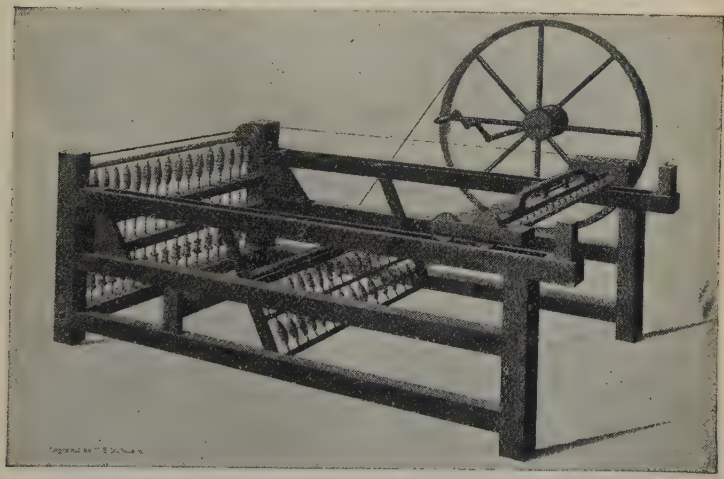
it was brought by coasting vessels from the north. There was no great need of it, however, for manufacturing, for things were not made on a large scale, except bar-iron, for which not coal but charcoal was used; this iron-trade existed chiefly in the Forest of Dean and in Sussex. As the forests were gradually



A SPINNING-WHEEL, OLD STYLE

being consumed the English iron-trade declined, until in 1740 it was only about one-third of what it had been. Just at this time, however, the use of coke with which to smelt iron was becoming known, and by the year 1750 the iron-trade was again established. It became the leading industry in England after James Watt of Greenock had perfected the steam-engine (of which he was the chief inventor) between 1769 and 1784.

Till the invention of the steam-engine, industries had been forced to cling to the places where water-power existed. But steam made them free to go where they could best get their raw materials, or their labour, or their markets. It was steam also which brought about the great improvement in spinning and weaving which



HARGREAVES' SPINNING-JENNY, patented in 1764

took place in the latter part of the eighteenth century. In 1764 James Hargreaves of Standhill near Blackburn invented the spinning-jenny, with which no less than eight (soon to be increased to eighty) threads could be spun at once ; this was followed by the invention of the spinning-frame or throstle by Sir Richard Arkwright of Preston in 1767, and of the mule (a combination of throstle and jenny) by Samuel Crompton of Firwood near Bolton in 1779.

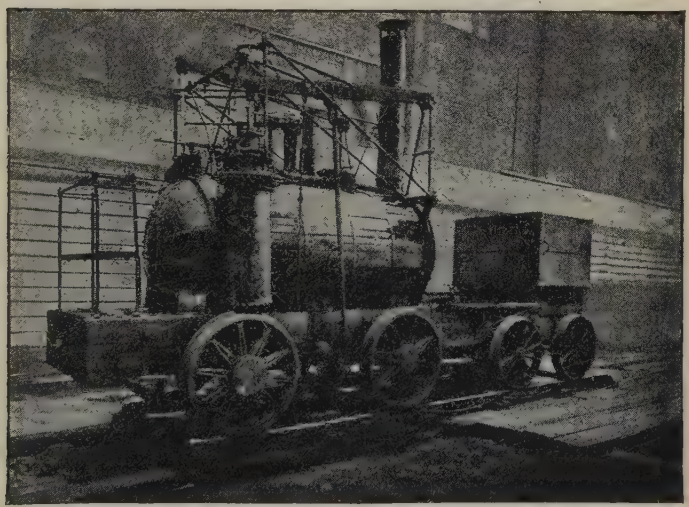
The younger Pitt, by acting on the principles of Adam

Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, and by making trade free, gave these inventions the chance to develop their full results. Towns grew in size, the north became rich and populous, instead of poor and thinly inhabited. With the growth of the factory system came overcrowding in the towns, and with the vastly increased demand for labour, women and children became commonly employed, and much harm was caused to child-life. In the country-side the condition of the labourers was no better, and the new Poor Laws only made things worse. In 1795 the Berkshire magistrates made a resolution, that where wages were too low to support a labourer and his family, the necessary addition would be paid out of the rates. This only further lowered wages, pauperized the labourer, and immensely increased the poor-rate. Thus the Industrial Revolution had its bad as well as good points; but in any case it may be said that without it England would not have had sufficient population or sufficient wealth to carry on the great wars against Napoleon.

The representative system. The Industrial Revolution, by causing much shifting of the population, had made villages into large towns, and towns into villages. Thus the representative system was out of date. The House of Commons consisted of two members from every county, and one or two from every borough or town which had ever obtained a charter from the Crown. Many of these boroughs were now decayed, returning members to Parliament according to the will of the owner of the land. Pitt prepared (1784) to alter this, but the Bill did not get through Parliament.

Social movements. In 1789 the country was prosperous; trade was good; religion was earnest. John

Wesley, who died in 1791, was just completing his great religious labours throughout the country. William Wilberforce, a Yorkshireman of good family, was beginning his long-continued efforts to abolish the Slave trade. Pitt was a close friend of Wilberforce, and had travelled with him in France in 1783. In 1788 the Prime Minister had a Bill passed through Parliament



GEORGE STEPHENSON'S 'PUFFING BILLY', constructed 1814

regulating the number of slaves who could be packed into any size of ship. Pitt wished to abolish the odious trade altogether; it was only the outbreak of the Revolutionary Wars in Europe that prevented his noble plan from being carried out. At home the condition of the poor was gradually improving. The schools of the country were small, but, in the Public Schools, at least, the teachers were good.

Literature. Literature was flourishing in England. In 1787 Gibbon completed the last three volumes of *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, the most glorious piece of prose among the modern world's histories.

Burke was still in all the splendour of his eloquence, and Boswell was completing the greatest biography in the English language—his *Life of Johnson* (it appeared in 1791).

The French Revolution. In June 1789 there was a rising in Paris against the government of the Crown and against the aristocracy. Shortage of bread helped greatly to bring about the Revolution. In October (1789) the King of France, Louis XVI, was a prisoner in Paris; on January 21, 1793, he was guillotined (in October his queen, Marie Antoinette, suffered the same fate). Already, in 1792, a republican government had been established in France; the Austrian Netherlands had been invaded, and a republic established there also. The Scheldt, by the Peace of Utrecht of 1713, had been closed to navigation from the sea. This had been done largely to protect the trade of Holland, partly also to meet the wishes of English merchants. The French, in 1792, opened the Scheldt to navigation without the consent of the states concerned in the treaties by which the river was closed.

The French Revolution, the imprisonment of Louis XVI, the interference in Belgium and Holland, had led to war being made by Prussia and Austria upon France. Great Britain, however, had taken no part before 1793, for Pitt was above all things a lover of peace. English opinion, however, was deeply moved by the savagery which showed itself during the Revolution.

The conquest of Belgium by the French, in 1792, made it necessary for Britain to go to war. The English Government had guaranteed the closure of the Scheldt. The Scheldt is a fine river, Antwerp a great port, and Ostend could be made a useful naval base. Britain is an island; her safety is on the seas; and if the ports of Belgium were in the power of a great enemy the English coasts would never be safe. It was the French, however, not Pitt, who actually made the challenge; on February 1, 1793, they declared a state of war.

Britain joined Austria, Prussia, and Spain, and from time to time gave them large sums of money to help them. A British army took part in the campaign in the Netherlands.

In spite of this alliance, Prussia made peace with France in 1795, and Austria, unable to stand against the republican general Bonaparte, did the same two years later.

England, left to fight alone, with a rebellion in Ireland and an enormous load of debt, was able to hold her own with the French, but not to bring the war to an end. Had it not been for the Navy, the whole British Empire would have gone the way of Holland, Belgium, Italy, and half of Germany, that is to say, it would have been added to the Empire which the genius of Napoleon Bonaparte was creating. In 1798 Pitt made a new alliance (or 'Coalition') with Austria and Russia, but in 1800 the Austrian armies were destroyed at Marengo in North Italy and Hohenlinden in Bavaria, and the Emperor again had to make peace at Lunéville (February 1801). Russia fell away too, and at last in 1802 France and England agreed to make peace at Amiens. The war had decided nothing; England could not

defeat France, for the British Navy cannot win wars; it can chase the enemy off the sea, but it cannot sail over the land and destroy their armies. Therefore the Peace of Amiens was recognized only as a breathing-space. Napoleon meant to be master of Europe, but he could not be so while England remained mistress of the sea.

Pitt was no longer Prime Minister when the Peace of Amiens was made. The Act of Union with Ireland (August 2, 1800) had been passed. Next year Pitt wished to give the Irish Catholics full privileges as citizens. George III would not listen to this proposal, so Pitt resigned. When war between England and France broke out again in May 1803, the whole country turned to the statesman who for eighteen years before 1801 had governed England with such dignity and strength. In April 1804 Pitt became Prime Minister for the second and last time.

He at once set to work to increase the Navy and strengthen the Army. The war against the French in India came to a successful end. Russia, Austria, and Sweden were ranged alongside of England to force France to leave Italy, Western Germany, Holland, and Belgium. Nothing on land, however, seemed able to withstand Napoleon. At Ulm on October 19, 1805, 25,000 Austrians laid down their arms; at Austerlitz, in Moravia, two months later (December 2, 1805), nearly 50,000 Austrians and Russians were killed or made prisoners. At the time of Austerlitz Pitt is said to have been so thin and pale that his friends scarcely recognized in him the commanding presence which had ruled the House. In the last public speech that he ever made, he said: 'England has saved herself by her

exertions, and will, as I trust, save Europe by her example.' On January 23, 1806, he died in his house at Putney, in the forty-seventh year of his age.

At the actual moment of Pitt's death, however, things seemed worse than ever. The famous Prussian Army was defeated at Jena in the same year, in October; and the conquest of the whole of Brandenburg made Napoleon practically the master of Europe. England was left almost alone. Yet the Fleet held the seas and kept England and the Empire against all foes.

The naval operations. The glorious naval history of Britain was reaching its most thrilling stage. The Navy alone stood between England and Napoleon, the mightiest military power that the world had seen. Napoleon's army was always ready; flat-bottomed boats and transports existed in large numbers to convey it to the shores of England.

The Navy's duty was manifold. It had to seal the French fleet in the French ports, and to destroy it when it put out to sea; it had to carry the British Army to the Netherlands, to Spain, to Egypt, India, Canada, Buenos Ayres. It had to stop the sea-borne trade of France. It had to watch every port on the Continent of Europe, for Napoleon had his hands on the foreign navies and was using them against England. Finally, the Navy had to see that England was not starved and that her foreign trade was not destroyed. Merchant ships had to be collected at certain stations to be convoyed along the appointed lanes of the sea, protected from the French privateers. The highways of the Empire had to be kept open, so that Ireland, Canada, India, Australia, and all the islands should not be cut off from the mother country. The work of the the Navy must therefore be

considered not merely as a series of grand operations—the First of June, St. Vincent, the Nile, Trafalgar—but also as a long, intense, and vigilant service—the tireless ships ceaselessly patrolling the oceans of the world against all the force and all the skill of the enemy and the awful violence of the elements of nature.

Lord Howe was born in 1726, went to sea with Commodore Anson at the age of 14, and took part in the great voyage round the world. It was he who opened the great war with France in Canadian waters by capturing the French warship *Alcide* (1755). In the War of American Independence his most distinguished action was the relief of Gibraltar in 1782. In 1794 he was given command of the Channel Fleet. He was then 69 years old.

The First of June. By May 1794 the French Republic had a powerful squadron convoying grain ships from the United States; a large fleet was in Brest. Howe decided to stand out to the Atlantic to meet the convoy, reckoning that the Brest fleet would come out and that he would destroy it too.

The Brest fleet and the convoying squadron met west of Belleisle. On June 1 Admiral Howe brought the French to action, their line was broken, and their ships raked with gunfire. The action began at half-past nine in the morning. By two o'clock it was over. The French fleet was maimed and dispersed, and six great ships left in English hands. The French convoy of grain ships, on the other hand, sailed safely to Brest, so that Howe failed in his main object.

This was the last battle of 'Black Dick' Howe. He died in 1799, after settling the mutiny at Spithead.

St. Vincent. The French knew that if they could conquer England, they would be masters of Europe. To

do this they knew they would have to invade England. By 1797 the French had got control of the Dutch and Spanish fleets; if these could be joined with the Brest fleet, the English Navy might be defeated, and the great French army brought across the Channel.

In February 1797 the Spanish fleet was sailing north to join the Brest fleet. It numbered 27 great ships, badly equipped and badly manned. Admiral John Jervis, with fifteen ships of the line, all heavily armed, waited for them off Cape St. Vincent; Nelson was in the *Captain*, with 94 guns. On February 14, 1797, the Spaniards were sighted, in two divisions, sailing parallel with each other. Jervis bore down upon them from the opposite direction. His ships, one behind the other, passed between the two Spanish divisions, giving the Spaniards both broadsides as they passed. So the English and Spanish fleets, sailing in opposite directions, would have passed each other. But Commodore Nelson, with the *Captain*, wheeled his ship and headed off the Spaniards, who were trying to sail away round the rear of the British ships. The manœuvre was brilliantly successful. For a short time he had to fight the Spanish fleet all alone, but he gained time for Jervis to bring up the rest of the ships, and to finish off the action. Four Spanish ships were captured, and the rest dispersed. There was no chance of their joining the Brest fleet, and so the French army could not be convoyed to England.

Camperdown. In 1797 Vice-Admiral Duncan was watching the mouth of the Texel. Holland, under the name of the Batavian Republic, was a dependency of France. The Dutch fleet was to be used with the Brest fleet to bring about an invasion of England. In

October Duncan had to put back to Yarmouth to refit, leaving some light frigates to watch the Texel. On October 3 the Dutch—15 battleships and 12 frigates—left the Texel and swept across nearly to Lowestoft. Whatever the intention of their admiral, de Winter, may have been, it was clearly not to meet the English fleet. For when Duncan, warned by his scouts, having left Yarmouth, came in sight of the Dutch, they put about and made for their own coast. The British admiral, however, had the wind favouring him ; with great decision he bore straight down upon the Dutch fleet, broke its line, and destroyed a great part of it (October 11). The Dutch naval power was practically destroyed, and the schemes of the French for invading England were once more brought to naught. The battle has been called Camperdown, after a tract of dunes on the north coast of Holland.

The year 1797, distinguished as it was by the great sea-fights of St. Vincent and Camperdown, was a year of mutiny in the Navy. The crews were made of very mixed material. Some were men who took to the Navy because they liked the sea and liked the service. Others were ' quota-men ', the number of men that each county of the kingdom was bound by law to supply. The rest were ' pressed ' men, sailors caught ashore or taken off merchant ships, and forced to serve. Frequently the wrong sort of men were pressed, either by mistake or because no better could be found. The quota-men sent by the counties were such as could be got—often convicts or ne'er-do-wells, who were thus put conveniently out of the way. The pay was poor, and was only paid at the end of a voyage. The food was bad, and the Admiralty did not provide vegetables, even in

port, to keep away the awful scourge of scurvy. The Navy was only held together by a sort of affection for the sea and for the service which even the convicts and miserable pressed landsmen came to feel, and by the discipline and smartness which the able officers maintained. The superior officers were men of education and good character, who had been bred to the sea, and who could take risks and deal with men. The warrant officers were the pick of the able seamen, and could keep almost any kind of ship and any crew in order.

Spithead. Spithead is a channel between the Isle of Wight and the mainland, and forms part of the Portsmouth anchorages. On April 16, 1797, Admiral Alexander Hood was about to put to sea, hoping to meet the Brest fleet, when the ships in Spithead anchorage mutinied. The crews remained perfectly quiet and orderly, but they refused to set sail. They asked that their pay might be raised to 1s. a day, and that they should get it regularly. The Admiralty granted their requests, and promised a free pardon. Here the dispute should have ended. Delays took place, however, in carrying out the promises. The men grew suspicious, thought they were being cheated, and mutinied again. This time they seized some of the officers, although without using them violently. This second mutiny was only settled when Admiral Lord Howe showed the men that the Admiralty were quite honest, if slow, and that their grievances were being redressed. Then they put to sea loyally.

The Nore. The next mutiny was a different affair. It was started by a man of very bad character—Richard Parker. He had begun his naval career as a midshipman, but had been dismissed for bad conduct. He was then sent as a quota-man from Perth in 1797. When Duncan

was watching the Texel, in May 1797, Parker was in the *Sandwich*, one of the battleships in the anchorage at the Nore, a sandbank in the mouth of the Thames. He stirred up the bad characters (the convicts, weaker pressed men, and others) to seize the ship. Most of Duncan's ships actually deserted him, and sailed to the Nore to join the mutineers.

These denied the authority of their officers, and deserted gladly in the face of the enemy. Admiral Keith was sent with the few ships available, to blockade the Nore. Ships without officers are useless, and no crews like to be without the leaders they have learned to obey and respect. Gradually the spirit of the mutineers was broken. Ship after ship returned to her duty. A few examples were made, and Parker was hanged at the yard-arm of the *Sandwich*.

Nelson. Horatio Nelson was born on September 29, 1758, at the parsonage house, Burnham Thorpe, in Norfolk. His father was the rector of the parish. The boy, who was always rather delicate, went to a private school at North Walsham as a boarder. In the holidays he lived the life of a country boy, always out of doors, either walking or riding. His father had only a small income on which to bring up his large family. To make things easier, Horatio, when he was twelve years old, asked to be allowed to go to sea. His uncle, Captain Suckling, offered to take him on the *Raisonnable*, 64 guns. So in 1770 the rector took Horatio as far as London, and then put him on the Chatham stage to travel alone. The boy got off with his box at Chatham, and wandered helplessly about the docks till a passing naval officer took compassion on him, and, first giving him something to eat, conducted him to Captain Suckling.

Nelson made a voyage to the West Indies. He returned with a thorough dislike of sailoring.

In 1773 Nelson went on an Admiralty expedition to the Arctic regions. He showed his courage by attacking a bear single-handed, with the butt-end of his musket.

NELSON

After this he made another voyage to the East Indies. Having left England stout and ruddy faced, he came back from the East Indies pale and thin.

He passed his lieutenant's examination in 1777, and went out to the West Indian station under Admiral Sir Peter Parker. In 1779, when still only twenty years old, he was rated post-captain. The three qualities which he

showed at this time, and which attracted the attention of all his superior officers, were his studiousness, his perfect fearlessness, and the winning simplicity of his manner. In addition to these fine qualities, he had the rarer gift which all men recognize and trust in—genius. Nelson's genius lay in his power of seeing what ought to be done in the critical moment of a naval action. He always seized the occasion, which a moment's delay would have let slip.

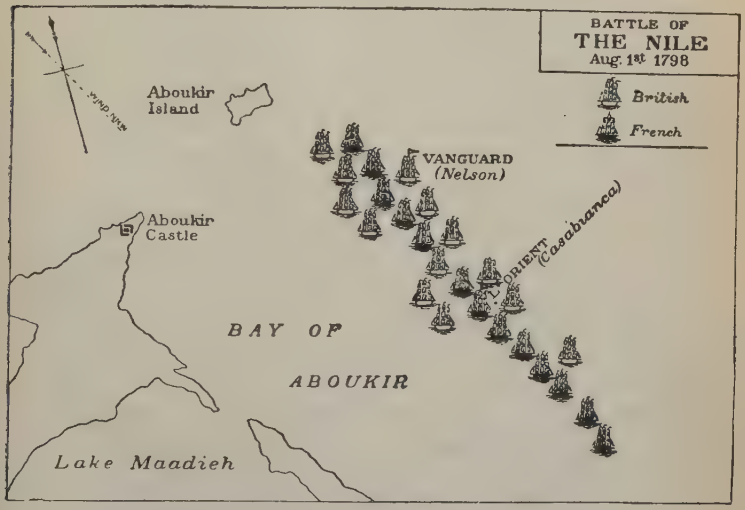
Nelson's character was far from perfect. No one can excuse his treatment of his wife or the great friendship he had for the bad Lady Hamilton. Yet he was devoted to his duty, worshipped by those under him, honourable in his dealings, ready to sacrifice himself at all periods of his career for his country.

The French Revolutionary War. When the war with France began, in 1793, Nelson was given command of the *Agamemnon*, 64 guns. Except for nine months at home in 1797–8, recovering from the loss of his arm, he was continuously on active service. In 1794, at the capture of Calvi, he lost his right eye. In 1797 Nelson fought under Jervis in the great battle of St. Vincent. In July 1797 he was sent on a very risky expedition to cut out a Spanish treasure-ship from the harbour of Santa Cruz. The enterprise was detected by the Spaniards, and repulsed with heavy loss. Nelson was shot through the elbow: an unskilful ship's surgeon made a bad job of the amputation.

The Nile. Early in 1798 Nelson, only forty years old, was promoted to rear-admiral, and hoisted his flag in the *Vanguard*, 74 guns, off Cadiz. This was a most critical year for England and the Empire. Napoleon Bonaparte desired to get the mastery of India. As a

first step he decided to strike at England through Egypt.

The French fleet slipped out of Toulon, when a storm had driven Nelson back to Sardinia. He swept through the Mediterranean to Sardinia, Naples, Sicily, Alexandria, back and forth. At last his frigates found the French fleet in the Bay of Alexandria, on August 1, 1798.



On July 1 Bonaparte had begun disembarking his army at Alexandria. On July 21 he had defeated the Egyptians at the battle of the Pyramids, and on the 25th had occupied Cairo. Thus all Egypt had fallen before him, and Syria was likely soon to follow.

The French were anchored in the bay, arranged in a slightly curving line from NW. to SSE. They had thirteen battleships, the largest—Admiral Bruey's flagship, *L'Orient*—carrying 110 guns. The other ships

were either 80 guns or 'seventy-fours'. Nelson, when he commenced the action, had ten seventy-fours and one fifty. They were all, however, in much better condition than the French ships, for the French Government spent most of its money on the Army.

Nelson sighted the French fleet at 2 p.m. on August 1, and resolved to sail straight forward and attack it. The action began at 6 p.m., just as the sun was sinking out of sight behind the horizon. The French ships one after another were forced to strike their flags. *L'Orient*, beset on both sides, fought heroically. The admiral was killed; the ship's decks covered with dead and dying. At 10 p.m. she was burning furiously, and her flames lit up the bay against the blackness of the night. Amid this awful bonfire the crew could be seen still fighting the guns, while the British ships stood off and raked her. At 10.15 p.m., with a fearful roar, the great ship blew up. The English boats, which were lowered for the purpose, saved about 70 of her crew. Her captain, Casabianca, and his ten-year-old son, were seen for a moment struggling in the water, and then lost. The boy's simple heroism is commemorated in Mrs. Hemans's poem.

The victory of the Nile (or Aboukir) was complete. Only two French battleships and two frigates escaped. The Egyptian expedition of Bonaparte was ruined, for without the control of the sea between Egypt and France he could never make a success of it. The campaign of Syria was indeed pushed forward, till the unsuccessful siege of Acre (March–May 1799) turned him back. The Turks defended this town under Commodore Sir Sidney Smith, one of Nelson's younger officers. In August 1709 Bonaparte himself left Egypt, and got safely back to France. In March 1801 a British army was landed at

Alexandria, under General Sir Ralph Abercrombie. In the battle which followed the general lost his life, but the French power in Egypt was completely destroyed.

The interval. The battle of the Nile ended the greatest and most glorious period of Nelson's naval career. Then followed an interval, at the end of which was to come the final effort, the magnificent action off Cape Trafalgar, the best known of the Navy's battles.

In 1801 Russia, Sweden, and Denmark joined together against Britain. To deal with this, a fleet was sent under Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, with Nelson second in command, to the Baltic. On April 2, after a short defence made by the Danes, the Danish fleet at Copenhagen was seized. Colonel William Stewart, who commanded the troops and who was present on Nelson's ship, tells in his account of the battle how Admiral Parker wished to break it off in the middle, and so hoisted signal No. 39 ('leave off action'). Nelson refused to notice this, saying to his captain, 'You know, Foley, I have only one eye. I have a right to be blind sometimes.' 'And then,' adds Stewart, 'with an archness peculiar to his character, putting the glass to his blind eye, he exclaimed, "I really do not see the signal".' Campbell's fine ballad, 'The Battle of the Baltic', commemorates the victory.

Trafalgar. Napoleon knew that he could not get his all-conquering army across the Channel without destroying the British fleet. So he gave Admiral Villeneuve an order to meet the British fleet and to engage it, thus risking the chance of invading England upon one sea-battle. Nelson gladly accepted the challenge, and that one sea-battle rendered impossible for ever Napoleon's great design.

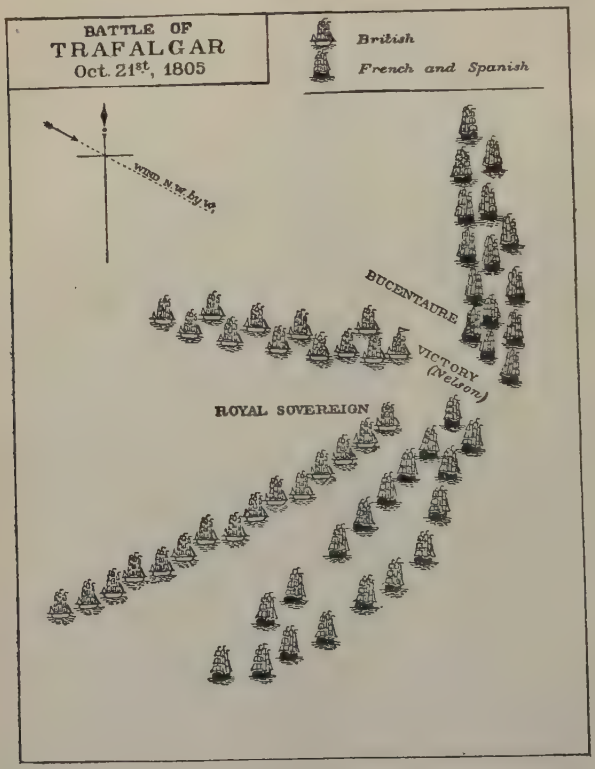
H.M.S. VICTORY

On September 15 Nelson sailed from Spithead in the *Victory*, 100 guns, Captain Thomas Hardy. He picked up various units on the way, and in October, with 27 fine ships—100 guns, ninety-eights, seventy-fours, and sixty-fours—he was ready to meet Villeneuve's 33 mixed

French and Spanish ships. On October 21, off Cape Trafalgar, the two fleets met, both sailing in the same direction, south. The British fleet bore down upon the Franco-Spanish line in two columns, the northern under Nelson, leading in the *Victory*, the southern under Collingwood, leading in the *Royal Sovereign*. At 12.5 midday, the admiral sent up the flag-signal, 'England expects that every man will do his duty.' Then he went on to the quarter-deck, a striking one-armed figure, with his long fair hair, his high pale brow, his noble, commanding features. He was carefully dressed in a blue tail-coat, with the stars of his Orders on the breast. The coat was buttoned at the neck, but fell away open on either side, showing a white vest. The knee-breeches were white, and he wore white silk stockings, and black shoes with silver buckles. On his head was a blue cocked hat. The coat, and stockings, and breeches—slit up both legs by scissors of the surgeons to remove them easily from the wounded hero—are in the Painted Hall at Greenwich. He was standing on the quarter-deck calmly directing the battle, when a bullet struck him.

'He fell upon his face, on the spot which was covered with his poor secretary's blood. Hardy, who was a few steps from him, turning round, saw three men raising him up.—"They have done for me at last, Hardy," said he.—"I hope not," cried Hardy.—"Yes," he replied; "my back-bone is shot through." It was soon perceived, upon examination, that the wound was mortal. He was in great pain and expressed much anxiety for the event of the action, which now began to declare itself. As often as a ship struck, the crew of the *Victory* hurraed; and at every hurra a visible expression of joy gleamed in the eyes and marked the countenance of the dying

hero. An hour and ten minutes elapsed, from the time when Nelson received his wound, before Hardy could come to him. "Well, Hardy," said Nelson, "How goes the day with us?"—"Very well," replied Hardy;



"ten ships have struck, but five of the van have tacked, and show an inclination to bear down upon the *Victory*. I have called two or three of our fresh ships round, and have no doubt of giving them a drubbing."—"I hope", said Nelson, "none of our ships have struck?" Hardy answered, "There was no fear of that". Then, and not

till then, Nelson spoke of himself. "I am a dead man, Hardy," said he; "I am going fast—it will be all over with me soon." ' (Southey's *Life of Nelson.*)

Nelson saw Hardy again just before the end of the action. The admiral asked his friend to kiss him, and then was heard to say, 'Thank God, I have done my duty.'

When Nelson died, twenty of the enemies' ships had struck their flag.

MEDALS STRUCK IN ADVANCE BY NAPOLEON to commemorate the invasion of England

The battle of Trafalgar destroyed French power on the sea. Though robbed of all chance to conquer Britain, Napoleon was determined to conquer the rest of Europe. He had defeated the Austrians at Ulm and the Austro-Russian armies at Austerlitz. In 1806 Prussia was defeated at Jena and Auerstadt. In the same year Napoleon forbade any European country to trade with Britain.

In 1807, after the Treaty of Tilsit between Napoleon and Russia, George Canning, who was Secretary of

State for Foreign Affairs, sent the British fleet to the Baltic, to demand and to receive the surrender of the whole Danish fleet, which Napoleon meant to seize and use against England. The demand was refused by the Danes, whose capital was thereupon bombarded. After a brave defence they were forced to surrender all their warships. The news of this swift act of the British Government staggered Napoleon, and upset all his plans for bringing England to bay.

After 1807 the commerce of the British all over the Empire was never interrupted, and the British Navy was able to strike in all directions and to convey troops to Holland, to Portugal, to Italy, to India, to South America, wherever they were wanted.

CHAPTER XXVI

WELLINGTON

Wellington's early career. Arthur Wellesley was born in Ireland on May 1, 1769. Little is known of his boyhood, and no record has been kept even of the place of his birth. Arthur was sent to Eton : nothing is known of his school-days, but he remained afterwards, like every one who has been there, fond and proud of the old school. From Eton he was sent to a military school at Angers, in NW. France. His parents intended him for a military career, and determined to give him the best possible education for it. In 1787 he was entered as an ensign in the 73rd Highlanders (2nd Battalion, Black Watch), and subsequently passed through various grades in other regiments. In 1793 and the following

year he saw active service in the Duke of York's army in the Low Countries. In 1796 he went to India with his regiment.

Arthur Wellesley knew everything that a commander should know about kit, rations, and arms. He studied how to move troops in peace and war; so that as no commander was ever more strict towards his soldiers, none was ever more just and considerate. There was no plundering in Wellington's army, no indiscipline. Recruited from the most troublesome men in England, the troops that followed him through the Peninsular War gained the highest reputation, both for fighting qualities and for behaviour.

Indian career. The chief event in Wellington's military career in India was the Mahratta War, 1803–5. The Mahratta Confederacy was a powerful collection of states in the west of India. Their soldiers were trained by French officers, and they had a fine corps of artillery. One part of the Mahrattas was allied with the English, but two states, those of the great chiefs Sindia and Holkar, were against us. In August 1803 war began between these chiefs and the English. Wellington, with 4,500 British soldiers and 5,000 Sepoys, crossed the Godavery. His forces were small, but they were perfectly appointed, for Wellington never moved without a complete supply of bullock-carts, water-carriers, and so forth. On September 23, before Assaye, he confronted Sindia, who had 10,000 infantry, 30,000 horse, and 100 guns. Wellington attacked, and after the hardest fight in Indian history (he lost between one-third and one-half of his men) he routed the great army opposed to him.

The Peninsular War. In 1808 Napoleon, who had

made himself Emperor of the French, deposed the King of Spain, Charles IV, and his son, Ferdinand. Joseph Bonaparte, Napoleon's brother, was made King of Spain, to hold it as part of the French Empire.

In August 1808 Wellington landed at Mondego Bay in Portugal, with 9,000 men. Portugal had been invaded by a French army in 1807. Lisbon was occupied by the

French. But Portugal was (as she still is) allied with England by a treaty of 1661, and England was bound to come and help her. Wellington's first task was, therefore, to drive the French out of Portugal. He won the battle of Vimiero (August). By the Convention of Cintra the French evacuated Portugal. They returned, however, later.

Wellington left Portugal in September (1808), and went to England. He returned in April 1809. While he was in England Sir John Moore had died in action,

defeating the French at the battle of Corunna (January 16, 1809), at the end of his great retreat.

Walcheren. To help the Austrians, who had once more taken up arms against the French, the British Government on July 28 (1809) sent a large fleet, with 41,000 men commanded by the Earl of Chatham. His object was to attack Antwerp, and thus draw some of the French troops from Austria, where under Napoleon they had gained a victory at Wagram. The expedition never got farther than the Island of Walcheren, and lost time and men in the siege of Flushing, which was captured on August 16.

When Wellington returned to Portugal for the second time, he came as British commander-in-chief in the Peninsula. His first task was to drive the French out of Oporto (for they had invaded Portugal again). Then he advanced into Spain, up the Tagus valley, and defeated King Joseph Bonaparte near Madrid, at Talavera (July 27, 1809). There was, however, another French army coming up from the south. So Wellington retreated into Portugal, followed by the French general, Masséna. Wellington set soldiers and civilian labourers to prepare lines of defence at Torres Vedras. Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, with its fine natural harbour, was a most important base for the army of a maritime power like England. It was necessary to make Lisbon safe. In the spring of 1811 Wellington was sufficiently reinforced, by both British and Portuguese soldiers, to advance again. Masséna, whose army had suffered severely from shortage of supplies, was obliged to retreat into Spain.

Badajoz and Ciudad Rodrigo. The country between Spain and Portugal (like the greater part of the Peninsula)

is mountainous and arid. There were no properly made roads at all, but there were two main routes, along valleys, between Portugal and Spain. One route led by the Spanish fortress of Badajoz, the other by that of Ciudad Rodrigo. It was necessary for Wellington to capture these before his communications could be secure for a war in Spain.

Early in 1812 Ciudad Rodrigo was stormed, on January 19, and Badajoz on April 6. Both assaults were very costly, but the fortresses were taken before Soult could bring up his army from the south.

1812 was the decisive year in the Peninsular, and indeed in the Napoleonic, War. It began with the opening of the roads into Spain through the capture of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajoz by Wellington. The summer witnessed the great battle of Salamanca (July 22, 1812), and the occupation of Madrid. At the same time Napoleon was leading his *Grande Armée* on the fatal expedition to Moscow, which ended with the retreat and almost complete destruction of his mighty force.

Wellington's career in 1813 was marked by a brilliant victory against Joseph Bonaparte and by important successes against Marshal Soult. The victory of Vittoria (won against Joseph Bonaparte, June 21, 1813) forced the French back to the Pyrenees.

On October 7 (1813) Wellington's army crossed the frontier between France and Spain.

Wellington brought about 70,000 British, Portuguese, and Spanish against Soult, who made his last stand before Toulouse, where he was defeated by Wellington on April 10, 1814.

Before he invaded France, Wellington had been made

a Spanish and Portuguese Duke, and the English Government, after the victory of Toulouse, made him an English Duke.

The Treaty of Paris, May 30, 1814, put an end to the war. The old royal family was restored to France. Napoleon was made emperor of the little island of Elba. He stayed there till the spring of 1815. On March 1 of that year he landed in France; the French Army joined him, and the Allies found that the old state of war was once more established in Europe. Wellington had been British Ambassador in Paris, where he was popular, in spite of the fact that he had so often defeated the French. He was now offered the command of the Allied Army. Belgium was the country in which the Allied forces could be most easily concentrated, so Wellington proceeded there, and in May 1815 had about 100,000 men under his command.

NAPOLEON

Napoleon entered Belgium along a line which, at a later date, the Germans were to follow in 1914, but in the opposite direction. A Prussian army under Field-Marshal Blücher was defending the line. On June 15 Napoleon's *right* army attacked the Prussians at Charleroi, and drove them along the road towards Namur. The French *left* army, under Marshal Ney, advanced along the Brussels road, towards Wellington's army. On June 16 he came against the British advanced troops at Quatre Bras. At first there were only about 8,000

troops against him, but their determined resistance enabled Wellington to send up sufficient men to stop Ney's advance.

Meanwhile, the Prussians on the same day had made a stubborn fight at Ligny, on the Charleroi-Namur road. They were forced to retire by Napoleon, who detached 30,000 troops under Marshal Grouchy to follow them, while he himself hastened north to join Ney. The British fell back from Quatre Bras before the combined forces of Napoleon and Ney. By the evening of the 17th Wellington had taken his stand on the fields of Waterloo, blocking the road to Brussels. Blücher's Prussians were working their way round to join with Wellington. If the British could hold the positions at Waterloo until Blücher joined him, all would be well.

Waterloo. The battle of Waterloo began about 11 o'clock on the morning of Sunday, June 18. The excitement in Brussels on the night before the battle was intense. Many of the British officers had brought their wives with them, and these, in the hotels and lodging houses of Brussels, were living a life which Thackeray admirably describes in *Vanity Fair*. The Duchess of Richmond had given a ball on the night of Thursday, June 15–16. At midnight, Wellington said to one of the Prussian Generals, 'Let us go to the Duchess of Richmond's ball, and start for Quatre Bras at 5 a.m.' The Duke, who had an iron constitution, required very little sleep. Byron knew people who attended the ball, and describes it in *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*.

> There was a sound of revelry by night,
> And Belgium's capital had gathered then
> Her Beauty and her Chivalry, and bright
> The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men;

A thousand hearts beat happily; and when
Music arose with its voluptuous swell,
Soft eyes look'd love to eyes which spake again,
And all went merry as a marriage bell;
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell!

Did ye not hear it?—No; 'twas but the wind,
Or the car rattling o'er the stony street;
On with the dance! let joy be unconfined;
No sleep till morn when Youth and Pleasure meet
To chase the glowing hours with flying feet.
But hark! that heavy sound breaks in once more,
As if the clouds its echo would repeat;
And nearer, clearer, deadlier than before!
Arm! arm! it is—it is—the cannon's opening roar!

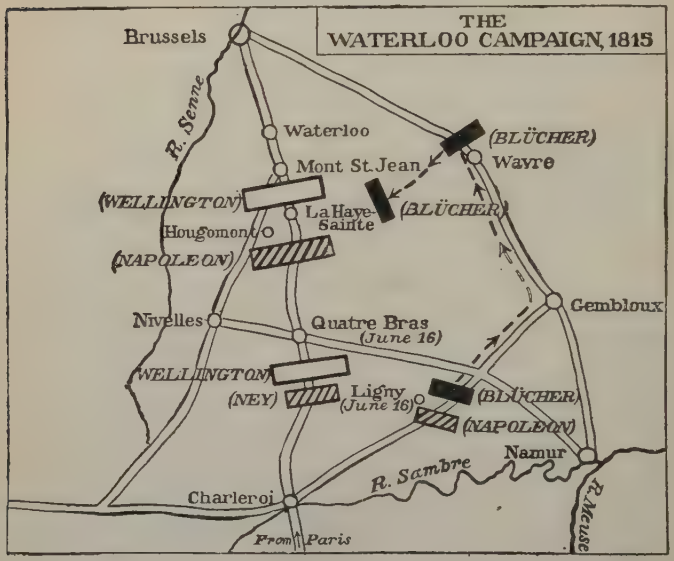
Within a window'd niche of that high hall,
Sate Brunswick's fated chieftain; he did hear
That sound, the first amidst the festival,
And caught its tone with Death's prophetic ear;
And when they smiled because he deem'd it near
His heart more truly knew that peal too well
Which stretched his father on a bloody bier
And roused the vengeance blood alone could quell:[1]
He rushed into the field, and, foremost fighting, fell.

On the gently sloping fields of Waterloo Wellington had his army ready for the battle. He had 67,000 men, of whom 24,000 were British, and 14,000 were Belgian and Dutch; the rest were German. Against this mixed army Napoleon led 74,000 of the finest troops in the world, all of the same nation, and all perfectly trusting their leader. Blücher and the Prussian Army, however, had been promised for noon, so that Wellington counted on receiving overwhelming support in an hour's time.

[1] Duke Ferdinand William of Brunswick entered the English service with his regiment of Black Brunswickers in 1809, fought in the Peninsular War, and was killed at Quatre Bras. His father had been killed at Auerstadt.

As a matter of fact, Blücher did not bring up his army till 4 p.m. He had thirteen miles to go, and it required all the fiery old Field-Marshal's will and vigour to get his men and guns along the broken-up roads in time to be of any use.

The battle of Waterloo began with a massed attack



of the French infantry on Hougomont. This was held by the British Guards, who resisted every assault. About half-past one the main onslaught was made upon the British line at La Haye-Sainte, a farm about one mile north of Hougomont. The first Allied troops to be encountered here were the Dutch and Belgians, who were routed. Then the French came upon two British brigades under General Picton, and engaged at close

quarters. The struggle was intense. The heroic Picton himself was killed, but the defence held fast, and finally the French columns were broken by a charge of the Horse Guards and Life Guards. This magnificent charge cost 1,000 British lives, but it saved the day.

At 4 o'clock the British and Hanoverian line between Hougomont and La Haye-Sainte had to face a still more tremendous ordeal. Napoleon knew that time was against him, so he strained every nerve and used every man. 5,000 cuirassiers, heavy horsemen in flashing breastplates, charged at the line. The British infantry formed quickly into hollow squares, and for two hours withstood one tornado of cavalry after another. No square was broken. Finally, at the right moment, Wellington sent the reserve of cavalry on to the field, and the remnants of the cuirassiers were driven off.

While the cuirassiers were making their great onslaught, Blücher's Prussians were getting into touch with the French about Planchenoit. Napoleon had to detach 14,000 men to hold them back; but 14,000 could not do so, indefinitely, against 30,000. The struggle went on through the length of the summer afternoon. About half-past six Napoleon's troops took La Haye-Sainte, and the battered British line was withdrawn a little at this point. At 7 o'clock Napoleon put forth his final effort. The heroic Marshal Ney was sent forward with the Imperial Guard, 10,000 of the most experienced infantry in the world, against the British line, between La Haye-Sainte and Hougomont. Wellington himself was at the threatened point. Under his cold serene glance the troops remained steady till the Guard was quite close. Then, at Wellington's command,

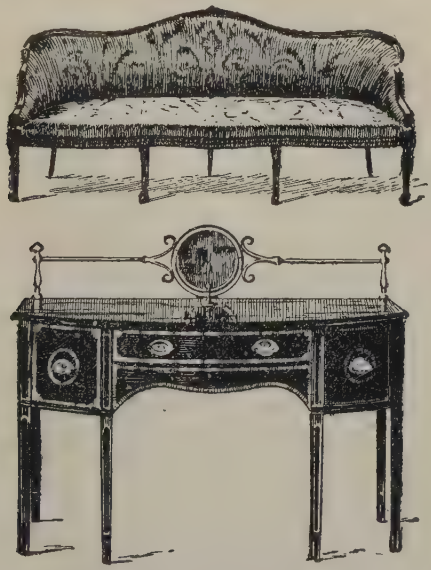
the British Guards stood up and fired point-blank into the advancing column. The French Guard reeled; the British Guards were upon them. But for a moment more the scales of victory were balanced when the last French cavalry reserve came up to support the Guard.

CHIPPENDALE FURNITURE

Then Wellington ordered the whole British line to advance. Putting himself at the head of the 52nd (now the Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire Light Infantry), mounted on his horse, he led the way. As they swept down the high road the French recoiled; orderly retreat became impossible, and Napoleon's great

army was routed. About half-way towards Planchenoit, along the highway, Wellington and Blücher met, two heroic figures, on one of the greatest stages of the world's history.

The victory cost 13,000 men to Wellington's army,



SHERATON FURNITURE

and 30,000 to the French. On July 7 Wellington and Blücher entered Paris. On July 15 Napoleon surrendered at Rochefort to Captain Maitland of H.M.S. *Bellerophon*. He was kept on the island of St. Helena, where he died on May 5, 1821, in the fifty-second year of his age.

The Congress of Vienna. At the Congress of Vienna (and the preliminary Conferences at Paris) the ambassadors of the Powers which had taken part in the great

war against Napoleon came together. It was decided that the Napoleonic Empire should be broken up, that Austria should have Venice and Lombardy, that Norway should be joined to Sweden, and Belgium to Holland. Britain retained Heligoland, Malta, Cape of Good Hope, and Ceylon.

It also declared that all navigable rivers of Europe should be open to the trade of all nations, subject to the payment of the prevailing dues and customs, and further expressed the strong disapproval of the Governments of Europe of the trade in slaves. The next fifty years brought about the abolition of slavery in every organized country in the world except Turkey.

Wellington as a statesman. When war was over, the great soldier turned to the labours of peace, and spent the rest of his long life in active attention to the political affairs of his country. He lived mostly in London, at Apsley House, the mansion which the nation presented to him. It stands at the west end of Piccadilly, on the edge of Hyde Park. From there he went regularly to the House of Lords, sometimes in his carriage, more frequently on horseback, often walking. The Londoners grew familiar with the sight of the stately old man, walking along the pavement of Piccadilly, clad in a tall hat, blue tail-coat, white waistcoat, and white trousers.

In politics the Duke was a strong Tory or Conservative, believing that people required to be governed with a certain amount of discipline. On his own estate—Strathfieldsaye, in Hampshire—which was bought for him by the nation, he was a just and kind landlord. He spent most of the rental upon improving the land, and built cottages for all the labourers. He said every

labourer should have an acre of ground, and he carried out this idea by attaching an acre to all the cottages which he built on his own estate.

To the end of his life he remained at work. In 1828 he became Prime Minister, a position which he did not wish to hold, and which he accepted, out of a pure sense of duty, because the King asked him. Wellington did not believe in granting a vote to the whole people; so in 1831 he opposed the Reform Bill. Great crowds gathered in front of Apsley House, and threatened him with violence when he came out of doors. Their behaviour made no difference either to Wellington's views or his conduct. Without showing any fear he rode as usual through the streets; but, after thinking the matter over, he induced the House of Lords to pass the Reform Bill, thus saving England from civil war (1832). In 1834 Wellington consented to become Prime Minister until Peel could return to England from Italy, a period of three weeks. Almost his last public act was to support Peel in abolishing the Corn Laws (1846).

In the last years of his life he was Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. His end, like the whole period of his old age, was impressive in its simple dignity and beauty. He quietly breathed his last, without any illness, on September 14, 1852.

CHAPTER XXVII

IRELAND AND SCOTLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

IRELAND

The eighteenth century was a period when Englishmen looked upon Ireland both with indifference and with dislike; but, in spite of a bad system of laws, the Irish were not treated with great hostility or much oppression.

There are three periods to be noted; the first is the time of Repression, from 1689 to 1763; the second is the time of the Constitutional Opposition, from 1763 to 1782; the third is the time of Self-Government, from 1782 to the passing of the Act of Union in 1800.

§ 1. The Period of Repression

The Revolution of 1688. The Irish Catholics had stood by James II when the Revolution took place in England, and William III found it necessary to conquer Ireland afresh. The battle of the Boyne on July 1, 1690, and the capture of Limerick in 1691 broke the resistance of the Catholics. The war had been won largely through the loyalty of Irish Protestants, especially the staunch citizens of Londonderry and Enniskillen, to the cause of William of Orange; so, naturally, everything was done to favour and strengthen the Protestant influence, and to depress the Roman Catholics. Seventy years of repression, though not exactly of oppression, followed, which only made the bulk of the Irish more Roman Catholic, and more bitterly resentful of the English rule.

The Penal Code. Roman Catholics were not allowed to vote for members of the Irish Parliament nor to sit in either House. They were not allowed to hold posts under the Government, to join the Navy or Army, or to be members of the town or city corporations. Priests were forbidden to celebrate a marriage between a Protestant and Catholic. Roman Catholics could not become schoolmasters, could not go to Trinity College, Dublin, could not become lawyers. If the son of a Catholic landowner became a Protestant he was made owner of the estate, although bound to leave the use of it to his father. By a ridiculous Act of 1697 Roman Catholics were not allowed to possess a horse of more than £5 value. It is said that once a Catholic gentleman was driving two beautiful horses into Mullingar when a man stopped the carriage and offered ten guineas for the pair of horses. The owner drew a pistol and shot the horses dead; otherwise under the law he would have been compelled to hand them over to the offerer, for £5 per horse.

'The priests, springing for the most part from the peasant ranks, and depending absolutely on their contributions, miserably ignorant and miserably poor, were an illegal class compelled to associate with smugglers, robbers, and privateers, to whose assistance they were often obliged to resort in order to escape the ministers of justice.' [1]

Ireland had a Parliament of her own consisting of a House of Lords and House of Commons. It met every other year.

Ireland is a country with large areas of bogland, and little mineral wealth. It can never be a great industrial

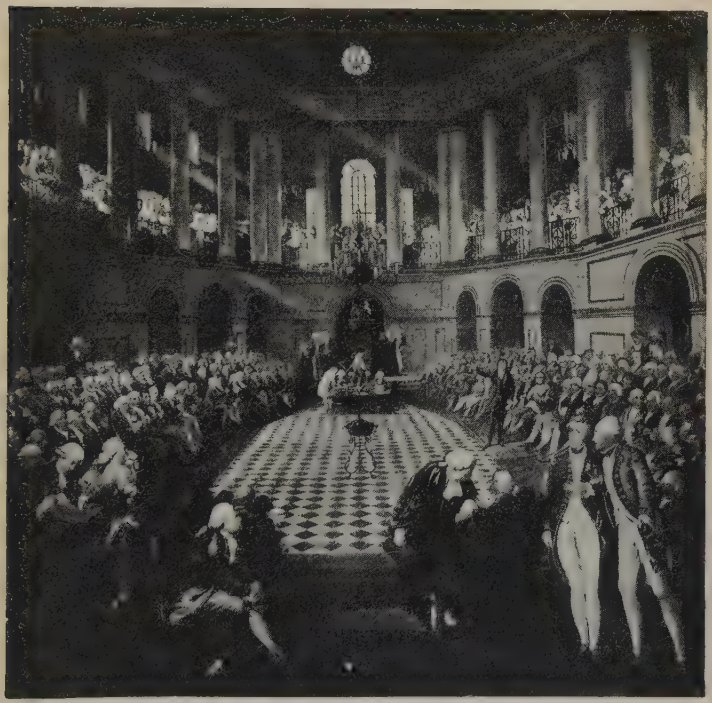
[1] Lecky, *History of England in the Eighteenth Century* (1879), ii. 282.

country, but it can be thriving and prosperous, with a busy agriculture and a vigorous shipping trade. All this, however, was prevented by England in the late seventeenth and in the eighteenth centuries. In 1663 Ireland was not allowed to trade with British Colonies. In 1665 Irish cattle or pigs were not allowed to be imported into England, their only good market. Trade, except in Ulster, practically died. The physical well-being of the people was at an end; dirt, squalor, and actual hunger were the lot of most peasant families for many years to come. It was this state of squalor that led Swift to write on behalf of the Irish. How deeply he felt the misery to which they had been reduced may be read in the third voyage of *Gulliver's Travels*.

As the result of many rebellions, the greater part of the land had passed away from the old owners into new hands, to Irish Protestants or English 'adventurers'. Many of the new landlords lived away from Ireland, and left their estates to be managed by bailiffs. The peasants were poor cultivators; the land was not by nature fertile; the new landlords took little interest in their land and spent very little money on it. The result was that the peasant families, so often on the verge of famine, grew hopeless, aimless, sullen. They practically ceased to try to grow grain, and attended only to the potato-patches, by which they just managed to feed their large families of half-naked children. The best of the peasants left the country and went abroad; the rest learned to look upon the law as their greatest enemy.

Emigration. Because of these conditions in their own country, many of the Irishmen who could afford to do so emigrated. Many went to Europe and entered

the service of the Kings of France and Spain, the Emperor, the Tsar of Russia, and of other governments. Those who were fitted for a trade went to the colonies.



THE GREAT PARLIAMENT OF IRELAND, ELECTED 1790

§ 2. The Constitutional Opposition, 1763–82

Till the end of the reign of George II the Irish Parliament was to a large extent obedient to the English Government. Gradually, however, discontent arose, and leaders like Lucas, Flood, and Grattan, by their energy

and eloquence, brought about changes which gave the Irish Parliament greater power.

It was Grattan who secured free trade for Ireland (1780).

During the War of American Independence, Paul Jones the American admiral came into the Irish Sea. The Irish soon raised a force of 60,000 volunteers, armed and trained, to resist the invader. No landing, however, took place.

While these volunteers were still armed, Grattan meant to gain a free Irish Parliament.

In 1782 the British Parliament, much to the joy of the Irish nation, passed a Bill granting Ireland an independent Parliament. Bills passed in the Irish Parliament were no longer to be in the control of the English Privy Council.

§ 3. Self-Government, 1782–1800

The independent Irish Parliament lasted just eighteen years. It remained as it had been, confined to Protestants. Those who wish a humorous account of it should read the opening chapters of Lever's *Charles O'Malley*. In 1793 it passed an Act which gave the Roman Catholics the vote. It must be admitted that Ireland greatly improved during the period of self-government. In 1789, however, the French Revolution broke out, and the evil spirit of secret societies and rebellion took root in Ireland.

In 1791 the Society of United Irishmen was formed. Its object was to bring into one body both the Catholics, who hated the English Protestant system, and the Ulster Presbyterians. The first meeting of the society seems to have been held in Belfast, and its chief object

was at that time stated to be the admission of men of all creeds to the Irish Parliament.

The Rebellion. In 1796, in the middle of war between Great Britain and the French Republic, a great rebellion was planned by the United Irishmen.

In summer (1798) a series of risings, ill planned and ill conducted, broke out in various parts of Ireland. They were all perfectly horrible; both sides fought each other with ferocity, and seldom gave quarter. Even the priests fought, and many of them became leaders. Some were killed while fighting, others, being captured, were put to death.

On June 21 the rebels were defeated at Vinegar Hill in County Wexford.

§ 4. The Union

Pitt, who was Prime Minister during the Irish rebellion, decided that England and Ireland must be tied closer together; that the Irish Parliament must be abolished, and the Irish called to share the labours and responsibilities of the Imperial Parliament at Westminster. In order to do this it was necessary for the Irish Parliament to vote for its own abolition, if the Union was to take place.

The Roman Catholic bishops were in favour of the Union, because it promised them more freedom. Some members of the Irish House of Commons and House of Lords were induced by offers of high rewards to vote for the Union. The Government accordingly was able to secure a majority in the Irish Parliament, although the county members, as a whole, were against the Union.

The Bill passed the Irish House of Commons with

a majority of forty-six votes. It likewise went through the Irish House of Lords.

The Irish Parliament came to an end on January 1, 1801, and the Governments of Great Britain and Ireland were united. Ireland was to be represented in the House of Commons in London by one hundred elected members, and in the House of Lords by twenty-eight elected peers and four bishops. The Protestant Church of Ireland was joined to that of England, and the two were to be known as *The United Church of England and Ireland.* The government of Ireland was entrusted to the Viceroy and his Chief Secretary.

SCOTLAND

Contrast of Scottish and Irish Union. The union made between Scotland and England in 1707 has been a lasting success.

The reasons for the difference between the results of the Scottish and Irish Unions are plain. In the first place, the Scottish Union was made by a treaty between England and Scotland. The Scots and English made a fair agreement with each other, and entered upon their union on equal terms.

In the second place, there was no very deep religious difference between the Scots and English. Both were Protestant, and in each country the faith of the majority of the people was the faith of the established Church.

Thirdly, the Scots passed freely into England and the colonies, and made great careers there. Not so with the Catholic Irish : they were not anxious to come to England ; those who did come were not particularly successful ; England was never a home for them. But Scots filled the highest posts in England and the Empire :

the Church, the Universities, the Law, the Cabinet, the East India Company, the great mercantile houses, provided them with careers, honours, payments, in exchange for their fair dealing, their industry, and their courage. For the Scot is not, as stories so often describe him, shrewd, cautious, slow in thought. He is brave, adventurous, enthusiastic ; and the wealth of England, the spacious fields of the Empire, have given his spirit the range which his own poor country could not offer. Therefore the Union has suited him. It has suited England too, for it has added to her the strength which the Scots provide alongside of the sterling worth of the Anglo-Saxon.

The Years after the Union. It is true that at first the Union was unpopular in Scotland. The citizens of Edinburgh disliked the loss of their Parliament.

Gradually, however, the Union won its way. As late as 1736 much ill-feeling was shown against the Government in London, during the Porteous riots. These occurred at Edinburgh. Two smugglers, imprisoned in the Tolbooth, had attempted to escape, but one of them, Andrew Wilson, a stout man, had stuck in the grating, and so prevented the other, George Robertson, from escaping likewise. Next Sunday, when the two prisoners were taken to St. Giles's, to hear the ' condemned sermon ', Wilson seized hold of the guard, and shouting ' Run, Geordie, run for your life ', gave his companion the chance to flee. Robertson escaped ; Wilson was taken back to prison, and then hanged in the Grassmarket on April 14. Some disturbance took place at the execution, and Captain John Porteous of the City Guard gave orders to fire ; some sixteen men and women were killed or wounded. For this act Porteous

himself was condemned to death, but was reprieved. The mob, however, furious with this interference from London, broke into the Tolbooth prison and murdered him.

Intellectual life. David Hume, who lived from 1711 to 1776, was, after Clarendon, the greatest of the historians till Gibbon came. Following Hume came the great figure of Adam Smith, who wrote and published the famous book *The Wealth of Nations* in 1776. He showed how the richness of one country does not necessitate the poorness of another, but that, on the contrary, the wealth of nations consists in each doing only what each can best do, and then exchanging the fruits of their labour.

In Art Sir Henry Raeburn (1753–1823) became noted as a painter. Sir David Wilkie (1765–1841) painted charming pictures of rural life. Graceful houses, with beautiful ceilings and mantels, which still stand serene in the old squares of Mayfair, were designed by two Scotsmen, the brothers Robert and James Adam, towards the end of the eighteenth century.

Literature. At the end of the eighteenth century the Ayrshire peasant Robert Burns (1759–96) wrote his beautiful poems. After Burns came Scott, whose novels describe so well the history and life of the old and new Scotland.

CHAPTER XXVIII

INDIA

§ 1. The Rise of the British Power

It was not till Bartholomew Diaz sailed round the Cape of Good Hope in 1487, and Vasco da Gama actually reached India by sea in 1498, that a steady direct traffic with India became possible. The Portuguese, those daring navigators who ranged the seas in the sixteenth century, were the first European Power to make permanent settlements. The Dutch, bold sailors and keen traders, devoted their attention chiefly to the spice trade of the Indian Archipelago.

The Honourable East India Company. The British East India Company was an association of traders, formed in 1600. On the last day of that year Queen Elizabeth gave to certain merchants of London a Royal Charter, which authorized them, and none but them, to trade with India. They began business in a warehouse at Surat.

In 1707, on the death of the great Moghul Emperor Aurungzebe, anarchy and confusion began to spread over native India, and racial wars raged over all the country. In Central India the Mahratta tribes established a group of military states, which were usually little more than armies living by plundering the peaceful population: 'the Indian people were becoming a masterless multitude'. It was at this crisis of Indian history that the English East India Company began to extend its influence from commerce to politics. That its neighbours should be peaceful and orderly was a vital interest of the Company:

otherwise its trade could not be carried on and its factories could not exist. Once involved in Indian politics, the Company could neither go back nor stay still. Order and disorder cannot exist side by side. So the Company's power advanced, till the British peace reigned throughout the land. Before this happened, however, many struggles took place not merely with Indian states, but with the French East Indian Company.

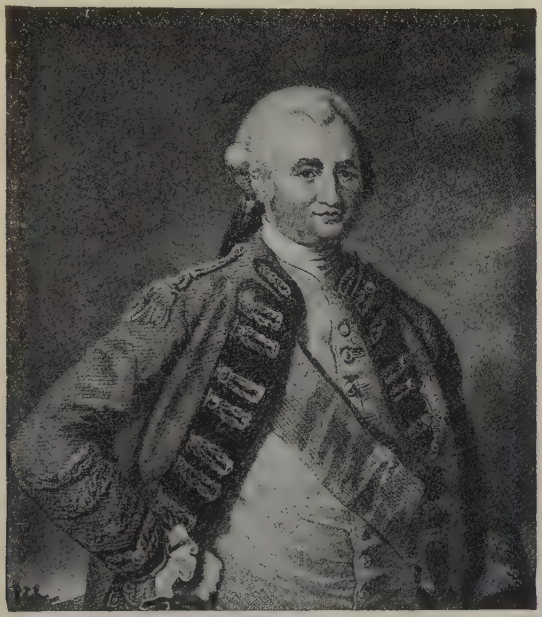
§ 2. Foundation of British India

The War of the Coromandel. In the Carnatic—the south-eastern or 'Coromandel' coast of the Deccan—two claimants arose for the Nawab's throne in 1751. One was called Mohammed Ali, the other Chunda Sahib. The French Governor-General of Pondicherry, Joseph, Marquis Dupleix, saw that by supporting one claimant he might gain for France a powerful position in the Carnatic, and might expel the English. He found that the assistance of one or two thousand trained French troops would decide any native battle. So he entered the War of the Coromandel (or Carnatic) on the side of Chunda Sahib. The English Company, threatened with destruction, allied themselves with Mohammed Ali. It was in this unofficial War of the Coromandel that Robert Clive first showed his genius.

Clive. Robert Clive was born at Market Drayton in Shropshire on September 29, 1725. When he was eighteen his family procured for him the post of a 'writer' in the East India Company's service. His pay, about £80 a year, was scarcely able to provide him with clothing and the ordinary comforts necessary in India.

Clive longed for a life of action. When the War of the

Austrian Succession sent ripples of battle from Europe over the Indian Ocean, Clive obtained a temporary commission in the Company's forces, and soon distinguished himself by his physical courage, as well as



Robert Clive

by his enthusiasm and resourcefulness. After the Peace of 1748 he had to go back to the desk again, but soon volunteered for the War of the Coromandel. He was given a company. At this moment (1751) Dupleix was carrying all before him in the Carnatic. The English

candidate for the Nawab's throne—Mohammed Ali—was besieged in Trichinoply by Chunda Sahib and the French. Clive, however, made a dash at Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, seized it and then held it against all comers. The Sepoys, or Indian soldiers trained in European fashion, who formed this small garrison under Clive, recognized in him a leader of men ; they endured privation with the simple determination of heroes, and the assaults of the enemy were of no effect. When food ran short, they offered their rice to Clive and the English soldiers, saying they themselves could live and fight on the water it was boiled in. The siege was raised after fifty-three days. The defence of Arcot has been called 'the turning-point in the Eastern career of the English'. Soon the cause of Mohammed Ali triumphed everywhere. The English Company obtained the lead in the Carnatic, and Dupleix was recalled to France.

The Conquest of Bengal. After a period spent in England Clive returned to India in 1755 as Lieutenant-Governor of Fort St. David near Madras. Next year Surajah Dowlah, the Nawab of Bengal, a young man about twenty-eight years of age and of bad character, descended upon the factory of the Company at Calcutta, and captured the inmates after a brief siege. One hundred and forty-six British prisoners were put into a cell which was only twenty feet square. Packed together in this narrow chamber, known in history as the 'Black Hole of Calcutta', they suffered awful agonies from thirst and heat through the summer night. Many lost their self-control and fought like madmen, while their jailers laughed at them through the window-bars. Only twenty-three of the prisoners survived the horrors of that night (June 21, 1756).

The news of the capture of Calcutta and of the tragedy of the Black Hole reached Madras in August. After two months' delay the Madras Government got together a force of nine hundred English soldiers and fifteen hundred sepoys under the command of Clive, to punish Surajah Dowlah. The two armies drew near each other on June 23 (1757) at Plassey. Clive's force numbered only about 3,000 men, of whom nearly 1,000 were English. The Nawab had about 50,000 foot and 18,000 cavalry, with 50 heavy guns directed by French officers.

The battle of Plassey lasted from daybreak until about four o'clock in the afternoon. Clive held the field with the loss of only twenty-two soldiers killed. Surajah Dowlah fled. A new Nawab, a supporter of the English, was put in his place. Some time afterwards Surajah Dowlah was caught and hacked to death by the men of the new Nawab. In February 1760 Clive sailed for home.

The Government of Bengal. In 1763 Clive, now Baron Clive of Plassey, returned to Bengal as Governor. The East India Company from that time was forced to take up the work of government. Henceforth its work was of two kinds; firstly, to manage the export trade of India; and secondly, to govern the country. The second soon became the more important and in the end superseded the other.

From Clive's first visit to India (1743), says Macaulay, dates the renown of the English arms in the East. From his second visit (1755) dates the political ascendancy of the English. From his third visit (1765) dates the purity of the administration of our Eastern Empire.

The crisis in British India. When Warren Hastings, the most able official in the Company's service, was made Governor of Bengal in 1772, two things in particular

had to be done : the attacks of formidable Indian Powers had to be met ; and a more organized system of government had to be set up. These two things Warren Hastings, amid incredible difficulties, successfully accomplished.

There have been three especially severe crises in the history of British India ; one in the time of Warren Hastings, between 1772 and 1783 ; one in the time of the Marquess Wellesley, between 1800 and 1805 ; the third, in 1857, was the Mutiny.

The Mahratta War. The Mahratta soldiers lived by plundering or taxing the countries they had conquered, or on their neighbours. The Mahratta warrior did no peaceful work ; in general, a musket, a lance, and a horse were his only property. The Mahratta chiefs made regular incursions into the provinces of Central India, and levied blackmail on the peaceful inhabitants. Such a plundering state was bound, of course, to come to war with the Company, whose interest was commerce and the suppression of violence and robbery.

War was begun through a rash act of the Bombay Presidency, which supported a Mahratta pretender in 1774. At the battle of Arras the British were victorious ; but the most brilliant exploit was the capture of Gwalior (one of the finest fortresses in India) by Major Popham (August 1780). This operation was carried out at night, without the loss of a single man ; the news of it went like magic throughout India.

The Mysore War. It was not the Mahratta War alone which threatened the existence of the British in India ; it was combined with a war against Haidar Ali of Mysore. Haidar was an able and energetic soldier.

The great menace to the existence of the British in

India came after 1777. French officers came to India to rouse the princes against the Company, and a fleet under France's best admiral appeared in the Indian Ocean. Hard pressed on land, in danger of losing communication by sea, Warren Hastings may indeed be said to have had his ' back to the wall '.

In 1780 Haidar descended upon the Carnatic with 80,000 men, among whom were a number of capable

HAIDAR ALI

French officers. The Madras authorities miserably failed to deal with the awful invasion, and the weight of all the duties which other people should have performed fell upon Hastings. Harassed with overwork, in straits for money, men, and supplies, he got together a small army, and sent it, poorly supplied with transport and equipment, under Eyre Coote to Madras. For months the veteran general, who was often too ill to ride on horseback, waged a war of defence against Haidar. On

July 1, 1781, he got the chance of a decisive fight at Porto Novo on the Madras coast. Haidar was defeated with the loss of 10,000 men. Another battle at Pollilore completed the defeat of the Mysore forces; Madras was saved, and, with it, India.

Haidar died in December 1782. Next year the French and English made peace (Treaty of Versailles, 1783); India was saved from the French.

The work of Warren Hastings was not merely to prevent British India from being overwhelmed by the Mahrattas and Haidar Ali. He also gave the country, in so far as it came under British rule, something like a regular government. He worked long, all day and every day, only leaving Calcutta, even at the worst seasons, on official business. He learned Bengali, Persian, and Urdu, in order to understand the people he governed. He encouraged travel, learning, and education. He was fearless, honest, lofty, a great man, worthy of the English name.

Macaulay's Essays on Indian History—*Clive* and *Warren Hastings*—are splendid works, which cast a brilliant light over a country too little known to Englishmen.

After Hastings retired from the position of Governor-General in 1785 he was impeached in Parliament for certain of his acts done in India. The trial lasted from 1788 to 1795, and in the end he was acquitted. The great pro-consul lived meanwhile the quiet and dignified life of a country gentleman, on the small estate of Daylesford in the Cotswolds, which as a boy he had dreamed of buying back for his family. He died at Daylesford, on August 22, 1818, in the eighty-sixth year of his age.

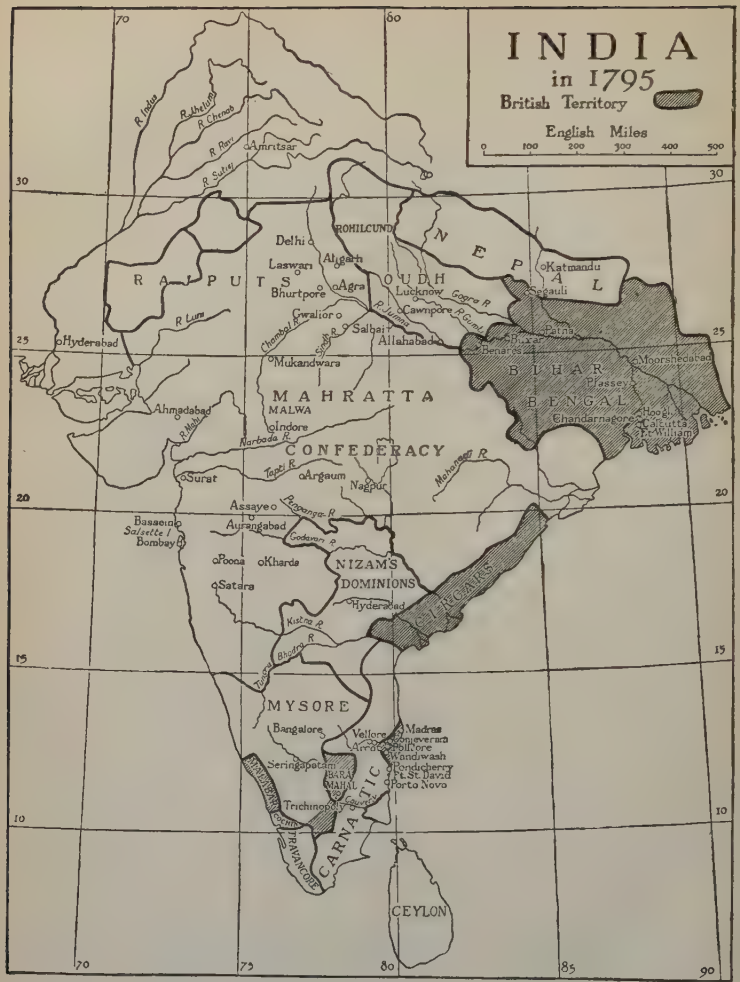
§ 3. Cornwallis and Wellesley

Lord Cornwallis. In 1786 Charles Cornwallis, 2nd Earl Cornwallis, went to India as Governor-General, and is the first of the long series of distinguished noblemen who have governed the Dependency.

Cornwallis was nearly 48 years old when he went to India. Till then he was known only as a soldier, having fought well in the American War; after many successes he had been forced to capitulate at Yorktown in 1781—a disaster which practically ended the war. He was a man of great courage; he was conscientious, honourable, laborious, and self-sacrificing. One of the first things he did on becoming Governor-General was to insist that the Civil Servants should be adequately paid, and should be at the same time absolutely forbidden to make money in any other way. The modern type of Indian Civil Servant, well trained, well paid, and efficient, may be said to date from this time.

In spite of his honest desire for peace, Cornwallis was forced in consequence of the invasion of our ally, the Sultan of Travancore, by Tippu Sultan, son of Haidar Ali, to make war on Mysore. Want of supplies prevented him from besieging Seringapatam, but he signally defeated the Mysore army, and deprived Tippu of half his dominions (1792). It is for his land policy, however, that Cornwallis is chiefly remembered. He decided how much revenue was to be paid for ever to the Government by the landed proprietors of Bengal. This is called the *Permanent Settlement* of 1793.

Sir John Shore. Lord Cornwallis left India in October 1795 with the reputation of being a straightforward, hard-working, high-minded public servant. He was


INDIA
in 1795
British Territory
English Miles
0 100 200 300 400 500
70
60
30
25
20
15
10
85
90
R. Indus
R. Ravee
R. Chenab
R. Jeloom
R. Sutlej
Amritsar
Delhi
ROHILCUND
Laswari
Aligarh
Agra
Bhurtpore
Gwalior
Chumbul R.
Jumna R.
Sinde R.
Salbai
Allahabad
Lucknow
Gogra R.
Cawnpore
Ganges R.
Patna
Benares
Katmandu
Sequali
NEPAL
RAJPUTS
OUDH
BIHAR
Plassey
BENGAL
Moorshedabad
Chandarnagore
Hoogly
Calcutta
Ft. William
Hyderabad
R. Lura
Mukandwara
MAHRATTA
CONFEDERACY
MALWA
Indore
Narbada R.
Ahmedabad
R. Mahi
Surat
Tapti R.
Argaum
Nagpur
Mohanudi R.
Wurdah R.
Pyngunga R.
Assaye
Aurangabad
Godavery R.
Basseino
Salsette I.
Bombay
Poona
Kharda
Satara
NIZAM'S
DOMINIONS
Hyderabad
CIRCARS
Kistna R.
Bhaypar R.
Pennar R.
MYSORE
Bangalore
Seringapatam
BARAMAHAL
Trichinopoly
Vellore
Madras
Conjeveram
Arnee
Pollore
Wandewash
Pondicherry
Ft. St. David
Porto Novo
Cauvery R.
CARNATIC
TRAVANCORE
CEYLON

succeeded by Sir John Shore (afterwards Lord Teignmouth), a distinguished Indian Civil Servant, although not a success as Governor-General.

The Marquess Wellesley. Richard Colley Wellesley was born at Dangan Castle, County Meath, on June 20, 1760. He went to school at Eton.

In 1778 Wellesley went into residence at Christ Church, Oxford. There he won the Chancellor's prize for Latin Verse. He was a brilliant classical scholar, and all through life read with close attention the Latin and Greek writers. Before going to India as Governor-General in 1798, he had studied Eastern affairs for years; no one ever went to a great position with a better knowledge than did Wellesley. His big ideas, his enthusiasm, his extraordinary industry, made him an exceptional man in every way. He was noble and dignified; he was a great statesman and a magnificent Governor-General.

Mysore, 1799. Haidar Ali's son Tippu, who succeeded his father in December 1782, hated the English, and was determined to have no peace with them. He entered into an alliance with the French Republic, which was at this time engaged in war with England, and received French officers into his army: in 1792, however, he was defeated by Cornwallis. Wellesley demanded that he should dismiss these officers, and on Tippu's refusal sent an army into Mysore. Seringapatam was stormed, and Tippu, fighting bravely at a gate of the town, was killed.

The Mahrattas. The Mahrattas were still the leading power in Central India, and if they had remained quiet no one would have disturbed them there.

Sindia, a Mahratta chief, however, was not going

tamely to see the British gain control of all Central India. He had a fine army of about 50,000 men, well trained by regular French officers whom he had taken into his service. He had actually occupied Delhi when General Arthur Wellesley called upon him to retire. He refused, and in the fighting that followed, he was defeated at Assaye 1803.

AN EARLY ENGLISH TRAVELLER. An Indian Portrait

The results of Wellesley's Administration. The Marquess Wellesley left India in July 1805. His work was undoubtedly a great achievement. He had extended the British power over Mysore, as well as over large parts of the Mahratta country ; and had confirmed it in Hyderabad and Oudh. He had driven out the French danger, and had ruined Napoleon's plans for the conquest

of India. He had helped to bring forth the military genius of his great soldier brother. Splendid in deed and in word, he was one of the most magnificent of England's governors.

The last years of struggle with Napoleon. When the Marquess Wellesley left India, Europe was still convulsed with the great Napoleonic wars, although these had been finally prevented from spreading towards India.

Lord Minto, the next Governor-General, dealt successfully with trouble which had arisen both inside and outside the British territory. In 1811 came Lord Minto's most brilliant exploit, the expedition to Java, the magnificent Dutch island which Napoleon had annexed. The Governor-General himself accompanied the expeditionary force. On August 28 Batavia was stormed by troops and taken over by the British.

After Lord Minto came the Earl of Moira (afterwards Lord Hastings) as Governor-General (1813). He found that the Gurkhas of Nepaul were giving great trouble on the northern frontier of Bengal, and in 1814 a regular war took place. The British at first suffered considerable disasters. In 1815–16, however, the Gurkhas were forced to sign the Treaty of Sagauli (March 1816), by which they ceded a strip of territory which safeguarded Bengal. Since then Great Britain and Nepaul have been friends ; Gurkhas have freely joined the Indian army and form some of its most renowned regiments.

Besides dealing with Nepaul, the Marquess of Hastings had to settle with the Mahrattas, and their allies, the Pindaris. The Pindaris were hordes of plunderers who spread disorder far and wide. Many of these were Mahrattas ; men of all classes and religions, however, might join the Pindari bands. These bands followed

each their chosen leader, and are said to have included between 20,000 and 30,000 men in the early years of the nineteenth century.

In the year 1817 Lord Hastings set on foot an army of 120,000 troops, of whom about 13,000 were British soldiers. This army was divided into a northern and a southern corps. The northern corps under Hastings himself was to close upon the Pindaris from the side of Bengal, the southern under General Hislop was to come up from the Deccan. The operations were completely successful, and by the early months of 1817 all the Pindari bands had been rounded up and destroyed.

MOWAT'S
GRAPHIC HISTORY
OF
GREAT BRITAIN

PART III
1815–1914

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PREFATORY NOTE

THE present volume is an abridged and simplified form of Mr. Mowat's well-known larger work : it is designed specially for pupils in Elementary and Preparatory Schools. The features and qualities of the original work have been preserved as far as possible, and a large proportion of the pictorial illustrations has been retained.

MOWAT'S GRAPHIC HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN

PART III. FROM 1815 TO 1914

CHAPTER XXIX

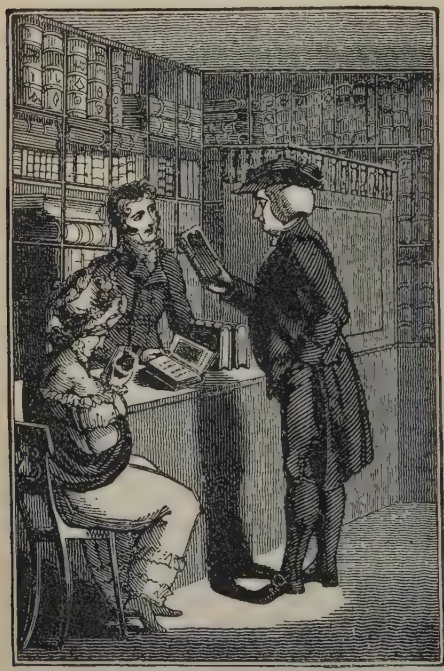
GREAT BRITAIN AFTER WATERLOO

The Nineteenth Century. The year 1815 is usually taken to mark a dividing line in British history. It is a century of inventions. The railway, the telegraph, the steamship, established inter-communication between the most distant parts of the world. The growth of manufacture, the vast increase in the production of goods, employed ever-increasing masses of people. With the growth of material, wealth, and population, came the necessary rise in the power of the people.

Condition of the Country. In comparing the England of 1816 with the England of 1922 we should find that the great country-houses have not changed, and the villages, at any rate in the remoter parts of the country, are little altered. But the towns have been entirely changed. Teeming cities have arisen; the busy, industrial area of the 'Black Country' has been created; England has become a kind of workshop for the world.

During the Napoleonic Wars industry had been prosperous in Great Britain. The British factories went on working, and British ships carried our goods far and wide. When, however, the Peace came, the markets were overstocked; great quantities of goods lay unsold

or unpaid for, and numerous failures were the consequence. Therefore there was much unemployment; and this was all the worse because large numbers of people depended on the factories for work.



THE BOOKSELLER
From *The Book of English Trades*, 1818

Agriculture was in no better condition. During the wars, in order that production might be increased at home, a great deal of land, hitherto uncultivated or under grass, had been ploughed. Much of this land was poor, and the corn grown upon it could not compete in price with imported corn. In 1815 a new Corn Law prohibited the importation of grain, so long as the price in Britain was less than eighty shillings a quarter. Yet this made employment no better in the farming industry. Although wages were low, prices showed no signs of falling. When the wars ended, corn stood at 75 shillings a quarter; the 4 lb. loaf cost 12 pence. By the year 1817 the price of corn had risen to 117 shillings, and the 4 lb. loaf was one shilling and fivepence.

In the year 1797 it had been found that there was not enough money in the country to meet all the necessary demands that were being made. Accordingly an Act of Parliament was passed forbidding the payment of cash in exchange for notes.

Although trade gradually revived, and the manufactures of the country increased, the condition of the labouring classes grew steadily worse, until the advent of free trade, with its cheap food and its increased exports, saved the situation.

The Men of Letters. Sheridan, the author of the *School for Scandal* and other delightful comedies, died in 1816.

> When the last sunshine of expiring day
> In summer's twilight weeps itself away,
> Who has not felt the softness of the hour
> Sink on the heart, as dew along the flower?

So wrote Byron, self-exiled on the shores of Lake Geneva, when he heard of Sheridan's death. In his eyes the future of the world, even now that the long wars were over, was filled with gloom: in Canto III of *Childe Harold*, the poet makes his hero visit the field of Waterloo after the victory:

> Stop! For thy tread is on an Empire's dust!
> An earthquake's spoil is sepulchred below!
> . . . . . .
> How that red stain hath made the harvest grow!
> And is this all the world has gained by thee,
> Thou first and last of fields, king-making victory?
> (III. 17.)

Byron's friend Shelley, living at Naples, took an even gloomier view. In the *Masque of Anarchy*, he calls on the men of England to rise and destroy the rich governing

class. Sir Walter Scott produced *Waverley* in 1814, the *Antiquary* in 1815, and *Old Mortality* in 1816.

Another great man of letters was Wordsworth, who had written both in verse and prose. He retired to Rydal Mount in Ambleside, where he lived till his death in 1850.

A Period of Tumult. The harvest of 1816 was a failure. Unemployment was widespread, and this, the people wrongly said, was due to the use of machinery in industry. Hence arose the *Luddite Riots*[1] (named after an imaginary Captain Ludd) in Nottingham city—an epidemic of machinery-breaking which, before it was stopped or died out, spread to the counties of Leicester and Derby. More sensible workmen in the Midland collieries, to show the Government how anxious they were to work, harnessed themselves to wagons, and drew them loaded with coal towards London. Lord Sidmouth, as Home Secretary, purchased the coal and sent the miners home.

In August 1819 a terrible event took place. A political meeting, attended by about 50,000 people, was held in St. Peter's Field, Manchester. It was addressed by 'Orator' Henry Hunt, a Radical Wiltshire farmer against whom a warrant had been issued for seditious agitation. The police tried to arrest him, and some commotion ensued. The Manchester magistrates, anxiously on the look-out against riot and revolution, feared the dreaded moment had come, and they ordered the Yeomanry to advance. The mob broke and scattered in terror; and although the soldiers behaved with calmness and restraint, one man was killed and about forty people were injured. This event—the so-called

[1] The Luddite Riots began as early as 1812.

Battle of Peterloo—was magnified by being named the 'Manchester Massacre'.

In 1819 Bills were passed through Parliament which forbade men to come together in bodies to drill themselves, authorized the police to search houses and to seize all arms found therein, and prevented any political meetings of men, if they came from more than one parish.

George IV. The Trial of the Queen. On January 29, 1820, George III (who had been blind and incapable of governing for ten years) died in his eighty-third year, and was succeeded by his son George IV, who had been Regent for ten years.

George IV was a Tory in politics, and shortly after he became King he induced the Tory Government to introduce a Bill for the divorce of Queen Caroline. This unfortunate Princess had married George in 1795, but became separated from him after the birth of their daughter in 1796. The Prince undoubtedly treated her very badly. For years Caroline travelled abroad, and there her unwise conduct attracted attention in England. When George became King in 1820 the Queen suddenly returned to England and took up her residence in London. At once she became a much pitied woman. The Queen was magnificently defended by Brougham, a very learned lawyer, and in the end the matter was allowed to drop.

Queen Caroline, on the day of George IV's Coronation (July 29, 1821), drove to Westminster Abbey and claimed admittance to the ceremony. She was turned away from the door, and died broken-hearted in the following month.

Shortly before the trial of the Queen the police had

discovered a desperate conspiracy, which had for its object to seize the Cabinet Ministers when they were dining together on February 29 (1820). The conspirators were discovered, and caught in Cato Street,[1] a slum off the Edgware Road. They were brought to justice and hanged.

Two years later the Tory Government received fresh strength by the accession of three of the finest minds of that age—George Canning, Robert Peel, and William Huskisson.

Trade Crisis 1825–6. One by one, during the Napoleonic Wars, the Spanish colonies had revolted and set up independent States, helped partly by English volunteers and by loans from English merchant-bankers. One of the first republics to come into existence was the Argentine (July 9, 1816).

These newly formed republics were able now to trade freely with other countries. Many trading companies were started in England. Large numbers of these became unsound, with the result that nearly a hundred banks were ruined.

Gradually, however, the country recovered until in the latter half of the nineteenth century the greater part of the world's money business was transacted in London.

Canals. This revival of Britain after the Napoleonic Wars was much helped by the magnificent system of communications which was now being established throughout the country.

Canals have been made and used from very ancient times, both in Asia and in Western Europe; but it was not till the Industrial Revolution, when masses of

[1] It is now called Homer Street.

heavy goods had to be moved, that the need for them was felt in England. It was the Duke of Bridgewater, and the great engineer whom he employed, James Brindley (1716–72), who constructed, entirely at the Duke's expense, the Bridgewater Canal, from Manchester to Runcorn. The canal took thirteen years to build (1758–71), and exhausted all the money and credit of the Duke.

After the Bridgewater Canal, many others were constructed, so that practically the whole of England could be traversed by these now quiet, but once so busy, waterways. They did a great service to industry in their time. The last inland canal was made in England in 1834, just when the great railway era was beginning.

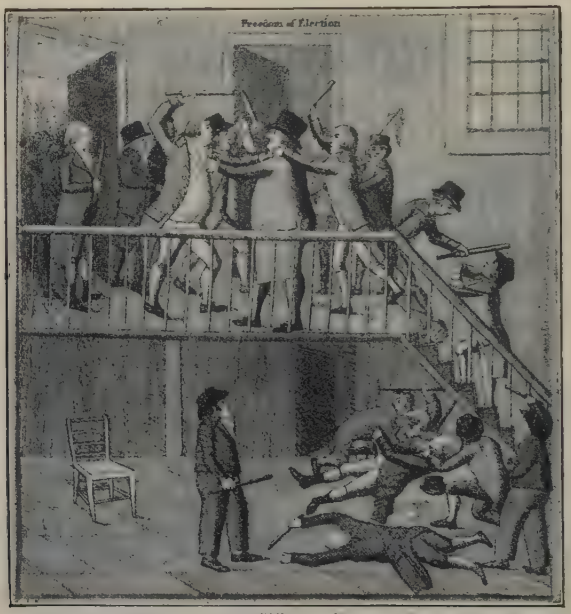
CHAPTER XXX

CATHOLIC EMANCIPATION AND PARLIAMENTARY REFORM

§ 1. The Radical Influence

The Radicals. Since the outbreak of the French Revolution in 1789, the Tory party had resolutely set its face against Reform. The other great historic party, that of the Whigs, had had its faith in the people shaken by the popular disturbances of recent years. Accordingly a third party—the Radicals—was formed, which gathered great strength in the country, although it had few members in Parliament. The Radicals were found chiefly among the working classes, and their immediate aim was to get the franchise—the right to vote—extended to the masses. The leading spirits of this party were William Cobbett and Francis Place.

Francis Place. Francis Place was born in 1771. His father kept a ' sponging-house ' (for arrested debtors) in Drury Lane. Young Francis received a fair education till his fourteenth year, when he was apprenticed to a maker of leather breeches. In 1789 he became



ELECTIONS, OLD STYLE. From Kay's *Portraits*

a journeyman on his own account, married, and commenced business in a room off the Strand. The young tailor read hard—in history, economics, and law. When the leather-breeches makers struck work in 1793, he became the strike organizer. After this he became secretary of his trade's club, and for the next fifty years was in the front of the movement for obtaining better conditions for working men, without resorting to violence.

§ 2. Catholic Emancipation

Position of Roman Catholics. At this time Roman Catholics could not sit in Parliament either as peers or commoners, nor could they vote in England or Scotland. They could, however, vote in Ireland.

O'Connell. The leading man in Ireland was Daniel O'Connell, who may justly be called the creator of the Nationalist party. He was born in 1775 in County Kerry, and came from an ancient Irish Catholic family. After attending school near Cork he was sent abroad to the English College at St. Omer (since removed to Lancashire and known as Stonyhurst). In 1793 he returned to England, having seen something of the French Revolution; and after studying law for some time in London he was called to the Irish bar. Here he proved a great success, being a careful lawyer and a ready and witty speaker. It was O'Connell who first roused the Irish to an interest in the affairs of their nation.

The Irish people, who were mostly Roman Catholic, could only be represented in Parliament by Protestant members. To remedy this was O'Connell's first public task; the second task (in which he failed) was to obtain the repeal of the Union. In 1823 he formed a society called the Catholic Association. The peasantry joined by the thousand, and thus became conscious of their common religion and their common race. Their interest in politics was aroused, and Irish Nationalism was created and became one of the strongest forces of the century.

Daniel O'Connell to the surprise of every one in England was elected Member of Parliament for Clare.

Some thousands of small freeholders marched into Ennis town to register their votes for him, yet as a Catholic he could not take his seat in Parliament. For the time being Ireland was quiet, but the electors had shown their strength and the reasonableness of their claim for Catholic Emancipation. If not listened to, they might shortly proceed to civil war.

This was the view of the Prime Minister, the Duke of Wellington. In March 1829 he introduced a Bill into the House of Commons to admit 'the Roman Catholic subjects of His Majesty' to sit in Parliament, to vote at elections or to hold office under the Crown, on taking the oath of allegiance to the King and Constitution. George IV was against the measure; so were most of the Peers. But the Duke's authority won them over; religious disputes, he said, had brought Ireland into a state practically of civil war, which would endure so long as one religion did not get the same treatment as another.

The Bill passed through both Houses; membership of Parliament was opened to Catholics; and they could now hold any public office except that of Regent, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, and Lord Chancellor of England or of Ireland.

§ 3. Parliamentary Reform

The Representative System. Our representative system at this time, although it did not work badly in practice, was not just. The House of Commons consisted of two members from every county and two (or in some cases one member) from every borough. The county members were elected by those inhabitants who had freehold property of the annual value of forty shillings.

Boroughs were towns which had received a charter from the Crown declaring them to be legal corporations. All boroughs could send one member each, the greater number could send two, to the House of Commons. The chief kinds of borough were three in number : *nomination boroughs*, in which a single landlord owned the entire freehold in any one borough, and where accordingly he could simply nominate the member ; secondly *rotten boroughs*, where the inhabitants were so few that the chief landlord could secure all the voters by bribes or personal influence, and so could ensure the return of himself or his own candidate to Parliament ; [1] the third kind of boroughs had no special name ; they might perhaps be termed (by contrast with the nomination boroughs) democratic constituencies, where the number of inhabitants with the right to vote was large enough to represent a fairly general public opinion. An extreme instance of nomination boroughs was Old Sarum, which for years had been simply a bare green hill, and yet continued to return two members, nominated by the landowner. Rotten boroughs existed in most parts of the country, especially in Cornwall : for instance, East and West Looe, each of which returned two members to Parliament, the number of voters in each case being about fifty. Liverpool might be given as an instance of a democratic borough ; it had two members elected by about one thousand voters (out of a population of 118,000 in 1825) ; in Westminster, which had a population of 182,000, the members of Parliament were elected by all the householders, to the number of about 12,000.

While some towns represented in Parliament had few

[1] Nomination and Rotten Boroughs were sometimes collectively called ' Pocket Boroughs '.

or no inhabitants, others, which had no representatives, had grown enormously with the Industrial Revolution. Such were Manchester, with 133,000 inhabitants in 1825, Birmingham, with 85,000, and Leeds, with 83,000.

The New Reign. King George IV died on June 26, 1830, at the age of 68, and was succeeded by his sailor brother William, Duke of Clarence. Greville thus describes the opening of the new reign :

'*July* 18.—King George had not been dead three days before everybody discovered that he was no loss, and King William a great gain.'

Progress of the Reform Movement. At this time there was a strong movement among the people of the country for a larger and proper representation in Parliament. The Duke of Wellington, Prime Minister, however, opposed any change. This caused many riots in different parts of the country. The windows of Apsley House, the Duke's residence in Piccadilly, were broken by stones, so that great sheets of iron had to be set up behind the railings to protect it.

The Duke's Government was defeated on November 15, 1830, and, after more than fifty years of opposition, the Whig party came into power. The task of forming a Cabinet was entrusted by the King to Earl Grey. He at once proceeded to introduce a Reform Bill. This did not pass. Another Bill introduced in Sept. 1831 passed the Commons, but the House of Lords rejected it.

Meanwhile excitement had never run higher in the country. Nottingham Castle was burned ; in Bristol the prison was broken open, and the Bishop's Palace and the Mansion House set on fire. Lord Grey went on

with his work, but it was not till June 1832 that both Houses of Parliament passed a Reform Bill.

Bonfires all over the country welcomed the result as if it were the end of a great war.

The Provisions of the Reform Act. The Act had two objects: the first was to arrange, so that places with few or no inhabitants should lose their members in favour of more populous centres; the second object was to allow a larger number of citizens to have the vote.

DAME PARTINGTON AND THE OCEAN (OF REFORM), 1831. Cartoon by J. Doyle

The Duke endeavours to stem the rising tide of Reform with a mop. The heads which crest the waves are those of Russell, Althorp, Brougham, and Grey.

To accomplish the first object, towns were divided by the Act into four classes. The first class, numbering 56, were to cease to return members to Parliament; among them were Old Sarum, Gatton, East and West Looe, Castle Rising, Minehead, Dunwich, Fowey, Haslemere, and others. The second class, numbering 30,

were to return one member each instead of two. Among them were Wareham, Woodstock, Malmesbury, Reigate, Lyme Regis, Arundel, Rye, Wallingford, Dartmouth, and others. The third class consisted of towns which hitherto had no members of Parliament at all and were now each to have two. Among these were Birmingham, Leeds, Bradford, Halifax, and others, mostly in the North. The fourth class contained places which hereafter were to be counted as boroughs, returning one member each to Parliament; such were Chatham, Cheltenham, Huddersfield, Wakefield, and Merthyr Tydfil. Similar Bills were passed for Scotland and Ireland. The total number of members in the House of Commons (658) remained the same as before 1832.

The second object of the Reform Act was attained by giving the right to vote to all males of full age owning or occupying a house worth £10 a year. In the counties all men were given the franchise if they held land for the term of their life, or on a lease for 60 years, of the annual rental of £10, or if they held land on a yearly tenure, and paid a rent of £50.

The Results of the Reform Act. The Reform Act marked a revolution in our history, but a revolution of a very English kind. It was loyally accepted and put into effect by the whole people, both those who had pressed for it and those who had resisted it. But the franchise was still beyond the reach of artisans and agricultural labourers, and it was not till thirty-five more years had passed that a beginning was made by including some of those.

§ 4. Communications

Roads. The reign of George IV and the fifteen following years were the palmy days of stage-coaching. As canals, before the advent of railways, took the heavy goods traffic of England, so stage-coaches took the passenger traffic. The inns all along the chief roads kept fresh well-fed horses; and by thus getting fresh horses every 'stage', the coach could travel, almost without interrupting the pace, for a hundred and more miles. In the last half of the seventeenth century stage-coaches were running regularly between London and Oxford, but it was not till 1784 that Pitt arranged for the mails to be taken by coach instead of by post-boys on horseback. The average speed at this time was five miles an hour; from London to Bristol by the Bath Road took about twenty-two hours.

In 1815, however, the Scotsman, John Loudon Macadam, was made Surveyor-General of the Bristol Roads and began to metal them with a hard smooth surface of crushed stones. Then began the great days of stage-coaching. Nothing better (certainly not the asphalt track of the motorist) has been discovered for horse-driving than the macadamized road. A steady rate of ten miles an hour could be maintained along it. George IV patronized coaching, and a large amount of capital was invested in the business. It became the fashion for rich young gentlemen to drive their own coaches, and the Brighton Road, or the Great North Road, or the Bath Road was, between 1820 and 1840, a brilliant and stirring sight in fine weather. Stage-coaching has brought fresh air into many stories: Mr. Pickwick, David Copperfield, and almost all Dickens'

heroes travel by stage, and the inns are lovingly described; and all boys will remember how Tom Brown goes to Rugby, and leaves it, in a stage-coach, and how noisy and troublesome the schoolboys on the top were with their pea-shooters. The brilliant days of coaching ended about 1840: railways killed the stage-coach.

STEAM CARRIAGE RUNNING BETWEEN LONDON AND BIRMINGHAM, 1832

Railways. There were railways in England before locomotive engines were run on them. From the beginning of the eighteenth century rails were laid on the ground and heavy traffic was hauled along these by horses. At first the rails were of wood, but in 1739 a 'plateway' of iron rails was laid at Whitehaven, which was becoming, as it is to-day, a great port for iron ore.

The invention of the steam-engine came in 1765, but

it was a stationary engine. It was not till 1813 that William Hadley made a locomotive engine, 'Puffing Billy', which ran on the plateway at Wylam Colliery, eight miles from Newcastle. It was at the Wylam Colliery also that the greatest of the early railway engineers, George Stephenson, was born in 1781. George

THE AGE OF BRIDGE-BUILDING. THE CLIFTON SUSPENSION BRIDGE. Designed by Brunel and completed, after more than 20 years, in 1864

Stephenson thought out the method of using the waste steam of an engine, and so made the success of the locomotive assured. When, in 1823, some of the business men of Yorkshire were contemplating the building of a plateway for horse-traffic along the Bishop Auckland valley, George Stephenson suggested that it should be made into a locomotive railway. This was the origin of the Stockton and Darlington, now the *North-Eastern Railway.*

The next railway constructed was the Liverpool and

Manchester line. It was at the opening of this railway (a double line), on September 15, 1830, that Huskisson was killed while standing on one track and speaking to the Duke of Wellington who was in a coach on the other. The Liverpool and Manchester grew into the great *London and North-Western Railway Company.*

In 1823 the *Great Western Railway* was begun, with Brunel as chief constructor. The beautiful bridges, viaducts, and tunnel-heads of this line, from London to Cornwall, bear the stamp of Brunel's genius. In 1835 the Derby and Leeds (now *Midland*) railway was begun, and between 1847 and 1851 the *Great Northern* was built.

The British railways were costly to build (about £44,700 per mile), but they are the best constructed lines in the world. Every penny that went to the making of them was subscribed privately, with no assistance from the State. That good value resulted from the high expenditure is proved by the really marvellous way in which British railways stood the long strain imposed upon them by the European War, when the railway service, while satisfying all the demands of the War Office, was able also to provide for all the needs of private travelling and of trade.

CHAPTER XXXI

THE FIRST REFORMED PARLIAMENT AND THE EARLY YEARS OF QUEEN VICTORIA'S REIGN

§ 1. The First Reformed Parliament

When the Reformed Parliament met in January 1833, the Whigs numbered 486, and the Tories only 172. Yet more striking than this was the fact that there were 300 new faces in the House of Commons.

The Government of Lord Grey was, however, a disappointment to the country. The people expected too much from the improved Parliament. Among the great men in power were Lord Grey, Lord Brougham, Lord Althorp, and Lord John Russell.

Emancipation of Slaves. In the same year came the famous *Emancipation of the Slaves Act.* All children of slaves, if those children were born after the passing of the Act, and all slave children under six years of age, were made free. The rest of the slaves were bound as a kind of apprentices to their masters, receiving wages. The West India planters, the owners of the slaves, were compensated with a Parliamentary grant of £20,000,000.

The First Factory Act. The year 1833 saw not only the freeing of all slaves in the British Empire, but also the lightening of the load that, since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, had been oppressing the children of the poor. The work in the factories, and the increased use of machinery, had made the employment of women and children very profitable to the manufacturers. The hours worked were long ; and under the strain of factory life large numbers of children died,

others grew up fearfully deformed. Women too suffered seriously in health; and their homes, often left in the charge of an unemployed husband, grew untidy and insanitary.

The conditions of life and work in the factories, especially in Manchester, Bradford, and other northern towns, attracted the attention of Lord Ashley,[1] who, while a schoolboy at Harrow, had resolved to spend his life in the service of the poor. In 1833 Ashley, who sat in the House of Commons as member for Dorset, introduced a Bill, which, after it had passed into law, became known as the First Factory Act. It prohibited night-work in textile factories to all persons under eighteen years of age; and limited the weekly hours of work for those between the ages of thirteen and eighteen to sixty-eight hours, and for those between nine and thirteen to forty-eight hours.

The Old Poor Law had done much harm among the working classes. Under it a labourer owning his own house had only to let it get into really bad repair, and then he could claim relief from rates.

Another way was for the parish to pay a pauper labourer's rent. The result was that landlords turned out free labourers and took in paupers, because the parish was a better rent-payer than the free labourer.

If wages were not enough to maintain a workman, the parish made up the difference. So the farmer paid less and less in wages, and the labourer, feeling that it was the parish, not the farmer, who was really paying him, gave less and less work.

If there was no work at all to be got, the parishes employed the paupers on relief-work, on the roads.

[1] 1801–1885. Succeeded his father as Earl of Shaftesbury in 1851.

Men soon found it possible to leave their employments, and to get better wages, with less work, on the roads.

The Poor Law Amendment Act made it impossible for the able-bodied pauper to be better paid than the labourer of the lowest class.

Guardians, who were unpaid, were elected in groups of parishes, called ' Unions '.

The Poor Law nowadays is still the same and since 1919 has been carried out by the Ministry of Health.

§ 2. The Early Years of Queen Victoria

The End of the Period. On June 20, 1837, King William IV died, at the age of seventy-two. When his reign ended, Britain may be said to have passed through, with difficulty but not without success, the troubled times which follow a great war. He had lived just long enough to see his niece the Princess Victoria (of whom he was very fond) come of age.

The Victorian Age. The reign of Queen Victoria lasted for sixty-three years. During this time great progress took place in the condition of the English people. The lot of the poor was greatly improved. The flag of England was seen on every sea and in almost every corner of the earth, and was recognized as a symbol of justice and a guarantee of fair play.

Parents. Alexandrina Victoria was born on May 24, 1819, in Kensington Palace, London. Her father was Edward, Duke of Kent and Strathearn, fourth son of King George III. The Duke of Kent had married late in life, at the age of 51 ; the Princess Victoria was born the year after ; little more than six months later, her father died (January 23, 1820). Her father had been a soldier, with service in various parts of the world ;

Victoria observed in after life, 'I was always taught to consider myself a soldier's child.' This was undoubtedly one of the influences which contributed to that strong sense of duty which was always so prominent in her character.

Victoria's mother was Victoria Mary Louisa, a princess of the house of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfeld. This lady had first married the Prince of Leiningen, who died in 1814, and by whom she had one son and one daughter.

Early Years. Until her accession to the throne, Victoria was brought up chiefly in Kensington Palace. The palace is at the west end of Kensington Garden, which is planted with noble elms, and separated from Hyde Park by the Long Water or 'Serpentine'. The household of the Duchess of Kent occupied only a part of the Palace, and their life there was simple. At the age of five Victoria was put under the charge of a governess, who was very strict, and who succeeded, with some difficulty, in teaching the self-willed princess her letters. The family, although so near to the throne, was by no means rich: when Victoria's father, the Duke of Kent, died at Sidmouth, the Duchess was so poor that she 'could not have travelled back to Kensington Palace, had it not been for the kind assistance of my dear uncle, Prince Leopold' (Queen Victoria's Letters [1]). Holidays were spent at quiet seaside or country places in the south-east or south of England: Ramsgate, Broadstairs, Tunbridge Wells. The family lived at these times in what the Queen afterwards described as 'small houses', hired for the occasion.

Life in the royal family in those days was really quiet, for none of the Georges had kept up much state; the

[1] *The Letters of Queen Victoria* (Benson and Esher), ch. ii.

household of a wealthy nobleman, as described in Disraeli's novels, was grander and better furnished than that of the royal family.

The simplicity of her surroundings, the quiet domestic life, the frugal household, enabled her to understand and sympathize with the great English middle class. It was a great blessing for England that a kindly, unaffected, sensible monarch should be at the head of the State.

The Queen's Accession. King William IV died in Windsor Castle at 2 o'clock in the morning of June 20, 1837. The chief official of the Court—the Lord Chamberlain—and the Archbishop of Canterbury, both of whom had been present beside the death-bed, at once left Windsor and drove straight to Kensington to inform the princess that she was now a queen. The Queen had to be wakened from her sleep, to learn of her succession to the throne.

Thus at the age of 18 Victoria succeeded to the throne of the United Kingdom.

The Troubled Years. The condition of England at the Queen's accession was not good. Great distress prevailed among the poorer classes owing to the high price of food. The people, who had expected all their woes to end with the Reform Act, were disappointed, and political agitation was again becoming serious. The industries of the country were in a sense prosperous: the mines and the mills were working at high pressure, but the way in which people lived and worked still brought misery and disease to many women and to more children. Abroad, the 'Eastern Question' was again troubling Europe. In the empire, Canada was in revolt. Fortunately, Lord Melbourne was Premier at the time, and the young Queen gave her entire confidence to him.

He advised the Queen in all matters of public importance, so her government was wise. Among the good things done by Lord Melbourne was the granting of more money for education, and the establishment of the penny postage.

DISPATCHING THE MAIL COACHES FROM THE G. P. O.

The Penny Postage. Till 1839 the charge for carrying letters through the post in Great Britain varied according to distance from 2*d.* to about 1*s.* 6*d.* Consequently, correspondence was small, and people were out of touch with each other. In 1837 Mr. Rowland Hill proposed that a uniform charge be established of one penny per half-ounce. The Post Office authorities were against the change, but Mr. Hill argued that the increase of correspondence would soon make up the revenue from

the carriage of letters to its former level. In January 1840 the penny post became established in England, and within the next half-century was adopted by most of the chief peoples of the world.

Education. In 1833 a grant of £20,000 a year of public money had been made to education, to be divided between the National Society and the British and Foreign School Society. In 1839 Lord Melbourne increased the grant to £30,000, and at the same time established a committee consisting of the President of the Privy Council and five other Privy Councillors. This committee was to apportion the money between the various private associations which maintained schools for the working classes, and to appoint inspectors to see that the schools were good. It was the origin of the Board of Education.

It was about this time also that Public School education received a new and wonderful lease of life. Thomas Arnold had, in December 1827, been appointed Head Master of Rugby (then a small school of 200 boys) at the early age of thirty-two. He arranged that Mathematics, Modern History, French, and German should be taught in addition to the ordinary subjects. But the most important reform of all was the monitorial system, according to which the charge of discipline was put into the hands of the older and more intellectual boys, and a new spirit of earnestness introduced into school-life. Arnold, who has been touchingly described in *Tom Brown's Schooldays* and Dean Stanley's *Life of Arnold*, died just before he reached the age of forty-seven.

The Queen's Marriage. The young Queen felt very lonely at the English court. Her uncle, the King of the Belgians, had long ago planned that she should

marry his own nephew, her cousin, Prince Albert, the younger son of Ernest, the Duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Already in 1836, Albert and his brother Ernest had been brought by their father on a visit to London and introduced to the Princess Victoria.

Three years later the two Coburg Princes again visited England, and were entertained by the young Queen herself at Windsor. This time Victoria fell completely in love, and on October 15, five days after his arrival, she summoned the Prince to her room and offered him marriage; for, as she remarked afterwards: 'he would never have presumed to take such a liberty as to propose to the Queen of England.' The marriage took place in the Chapel of St. James's Palace on February 10, 1840.

THE PRINCE CONSORT

The Prince Consort. Prince Albert was one of the most cultivated men of the time. By taste and training he had acquired a great knowledge of the international affairs of Europe; his interest in domestic affairs was no less keen; music, painting, learning and commerce were all encouraged by him. The Queen and the Prince were well mated: Victoria was then a beautiful, spirited girl; Albert was tall and handsome, tactful and sympathetic. Both had a high idea of their position, and worked hard at their great task. The Prince acted as a private secretary and a trusted adviser to the Queen: much of her state correspondence was drafted by his hand. Many hours each day must have been passed by the Queen and Prince at their writing-table.

CHAPTER XXXII

FOREIGN AFFAIRS, 1816–1852

The Concert of Europe. At the end of the Napoleonic War, the victorious Powers made treaties with each other with the object of ensuring, if possible, that another European War should not take place in the near future.

One of these treaties, known as the Holy Alliance, was made between Russia, Prussia, and Austria, and later most of the Powers of Europe including France joined. Britain, however, kept aloof.

A more important and useful alliance was that between Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, made on November 20, 1815, and known as the Quadruple Alliance.

Two valuable results came from this treaty—viz. the carrying out of the terms of peace made with France and the meetings of the Powers which helped to avoid wars, and gradually came to be known as the 'Concert of Europe'.

The Congress Period. The first meeting held under the terms of the Quadruple Alliance was the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle in October 1818, attended by representatives of Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia. As France had managed to pay off the war indemnity two years earlier than the time allowed by the treaty, the Allies agreed to leave French territory. From this year France was treated as a regular member of the Concert of Europe.

Canning. On Castlereagh's death Canning became Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.

He was at this time fifty-two years old. Almost his first act was to hold out a hand to the colonies of South America, which were struggling for independence against Spain, as the North American Colonies had formerly struggled against England. On October 17, 1823, he appointed British consuls to the principal towns of the Spanish insurrectionary colonies, thus practically recognizing their independence. Less than two months later, President Monroe of the United States, encouraged by the dispatches of Canning, sent his famous Message to Congress (December 2, 1823), now known as the Monroe Doctrine.

The Monroe doctrine, in effect, was a declaration of 'hands off America', and, coupled with Canning's recognition of the independence of the revolting Spanish colonies, it was sufficient to secure these their freedom.

The Greek War of Independence. Meanwhile another insurrection had started in Europe. Since the year 1460 the Greeks had been under Turkish rule; but in 1821 a revolt was started by Prince Alexander Ypsilanti, a Greek exile who had served in the Russian army and had lost an arm in the battle of Dresden in 1813. The movement became, both on the Turkish and on the Greek side, almost a war of extermination. The greatest sympathy with the Greeks was manifested in England, and Englishmen took up arms in the Greek cause—among them Lord Byron, who died at Missolonghi in 1824, Finlay, the historian of Greece, who both fought and wrote in the land of his adoption, Lord Dundonald, who accepted the command of the Greek navy in 1827, and Sir Richard Church, who became Commander-in-Chief of the Greek land forces in 1827 and continued to serve Greece as a soldier till 1854.

Kingdom of Sardinia
Austrian Dominions
Netherlands
Prussia
Germanic Confederation
Copenhagen
Danzig
Hamburg
LONDON
HANOVER
BERLIN
WARSAW
Pripet
POLAND
RUSSIA
Antwerp
BRUSSELS
DRESDEN
Breslau
SAXONY
Rouen
Seine
PARIS
Cracow
Dnieper
Bug
Strassburg
WURTEMBERG
Rhine
BAVARIA
VIENNA
Theiss
Pruth
Dniester
Loire
FRANCE
Berne
Budapest
Bordeaux
Milan
Trieste
Drave
Maros
Servia
Rhone
Bayonne
Genoa
Venice
Save
Belgrade
TURKISH
Danube
Florence
PAPAL
Marseilles
SPAIN
Corsica to France
STATES
Barcelona
ROME
EMPIRE
CONSTANTINOPLE
Naples
KINGDOM OF TWO SICILIES
ATHENS
CENTRAL and EASTERN EUROPE 1815

Canning died on August 8, 1827. Just two months later the battle of Navarino occurred, and the freedom of Greece was made certain. The three Powers—Great Britain, France, and Russia—proposed that an armistice should take place between Greece and Turkey. The Greeks agreed ; the Turks refused. The allied fleet, under the command of Admiral Sir Edward Codrington, then sailed into Navarino Bay to parley with the Turkish commander Ibrahim Pasha, and to persuade him, if possible, to accept the armistice. The parleying did not last long. The Turkish guns were the first to open fire ; a regular battle followed, and lasted for four hours ; at the end of this time the Turkish fleet had been destroyed.

The battle of Navarino made it certain that the Greeks would at any rate be safe from the Turks at sea. A land campaign by the Russian army in 1829 completed the process. General Diebitsch crossed the Danube, and advanced as far as Adrianople, where the Turks signed a treaty of peace and agreed to give freedom to Greece (September 14, 1829). By the Treaty of London in 1832 Greece became completely independent, not even paying tribute to Turkey, and the Bavarian Prince Otto was appointed King of Greece.

Portugal. Portugal had been the ally of England since the fourteenth century. This connexion naturally became closer still during the Peninsular War. During that war the royal family had withdrawn to the Portuguese colony of Brazil, and remained there till 1821, when John VI returned to Lisbon, leaving his elder son Pedro behind him at Rio. In 1822 Pedro made himself Emperor of Brazil.

In 1826 King John died, and Pedro, preferring to

remain as Emperor of Brazil,[1] resigned his right to the crown of Portugal in favour of his daughter Maria. This act led to a long civil war, for Maria's uncle (Pedro's younger brother) Miguel set himself up as a rival and declared himself king (April 1828).

In 1834 Dom Miguel surrendered. Thus Maria was left as queen, and in 1836 she married Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg, who founded a dynasty which ruled at Lisbon till 1906.

WILLIAM IV AND THE RIVAL CLAIMANTS TO THE PORTUGUESE THRONE. Cartoon by J. Doyle

Spain. During a large part of the time of civil war in Portugal, a similar though much fiercer struggle was being waged in Spain. There Ferdinand VII had died in 1833, leaving a three-year-old daughter, Isabel, to be queen, under the regency of her mother Christina. Ferdinand's brother Don Carlos, claiming that women were by law excluded from the throne of Spain,[2] declared himself as the rightful king. War broke out and on both sides was fought with great ferocity, and prisoners were nearly always butchered in cold blood.

In 1835 the Spanish Government obtained permission from the English Government to recruit a 'British

[1] The Empire of Brazil lasted till 1889.

[2] In point of fact women *had* formerly ruled in Spain: e.g. Isabella of Castile (*d.* 1504).

Legion' of 10,000 men. The force thus raised was put under the command of Colonel de Lacy Evans, who had fought during the Napoleonic War, in India, the Peninsula, Belgium, and America, and had survived an astonishing number of wounds. During the years (1835–1837) for which the Legion was recruited, Evans led it with the greatest courage and energy; in 1836 he defeated the Carlists in a twelve-hour battle (being himself, as usual, severely wounded). After two years

of honourable service, during which the Spanish Government had most shamefully neglected it, the remnant of the Legion was shipped back to England by the British Government. The unconquerable Evans lived to fight and shed his blood again in the Crimea.

By the year 1840 the efforts of the Carlists had exhausted themselves, and in 1846 Queen Isabel married her cousin the Duke of Cadiz, and their line still rules at Madrid.

Belgium. In 1815 Belgium, which had previously belonged to Spain and then to Austria, was joined to Holland by the Congress of Vienna, in the hope that the two countries would make one strong buffer state between France and Germany. The Belgians, however,

never liked this, and in 1830 declared their separation from Holland.

The greatest difficulty was experienced in settling this Belgo-Dutch question.

The Powers at last agreed to recognize Belgium as an independent neutral State, under the sovereignty of

Leopold I of the house of Saxe-Coburg. They fixed the frontiers of the Belgian State, and also guaranteed its perpetual neutrality. It was acting under this clause that Great Britain declared war on Germany, when, on August 4, 1914, the German forces crossed the Belgian frontier.

Mehemet Ali. Egypt between 1830 and 1840 was a province of Turkey and was governed by the able Albanian Mehemet Ali. After the Greek war quarrels arose between him and Mahmud, the Sultan of Turkey,

and in 1832 Mehemet's army, led by his son Ibrahim, advanced from Syria into Asia Minor and swept away the Sultan's troops at Konieh. Constantinople was only saved by the Tsar Nicholas sending a navy and an army to the Bosphorus to help the Sultan. The Tsar agreed to protect the Sultan, and the Sultan agreed to close the Dardanelles to all foreign warships except those of the Russian navy (July 8, 1833). Thus the Dardanelles became practically a Russian fortress.

In 1839 another crisis had occurred between the Sultan Mahmud and Mehemet Ali, and at Nisib the Turkish troops were again swept off the field by Ibrahim, this time under the eyes of the great soldier von Moltke (then only a Captain in the Prussian army) who had become military adviser to the Sultan. A British squadron was sent to the coast of Syria; and Charles Napier (who had returned from being a Portuguese admiral) took command of the Turkish forces. He first defeated the Egyptians on land, at Nahr-el-Kelb near Beyrout on October 10, 1840, and next month captured Acre from the sea. Mehemet Ali left Syria, and made peace on condition that he should be Pasha of Egypt, where his dynasty reigns to this day.

The tie between Great Britain and Turkey was immensely strengthened—a most important union, as with Turkey quiet and on our side, the Middle East, from Constantinople to the borders of Afghanistan, remained at peace.

The Second Revolution of 1848 and the Second Empire. In February 1848 a Revolution broke out in Paris. Louis Philippe escaped to England.[1] The Paris rising was followed by others elsewhere—in Poland against

[1] He died in 1850 at Claremont.

the Russians, in Hungary and Vienna against the Habsburgs, in North Italy against the Austrian power. Only in France, however, did the revolution result in any important change in government.

In December 1848 Louis Napoleon, a nephew of the great Napoleon I, was elected President of the Republic. Three years later, on December 2, 1851, he had all the Republican leaders seized, and sent into exile. A general vote of the French people, on December 21, gave the Government of Louis Napoleon power to remodel the Constitution ; and in the following year, on November 21, 1852, it was decided by vote to revive the Empire. Thus arose the Second French Empire, which was to last till September 4, 1870, when it fell at the news of Sedan.

CHAPTER XXXIII

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC REFORM

§ 1. The Condition of England

Significance of the Corn Laws. The statesman who was to bring about the most important reform in England during the nineteenth century was Sir Robert Peel. The general health of the people was weakened by the laws which imposed high taxes upon imports, especially on corn. Although the country rapidly recovered from the effects of the Napoleonic Wars, and made great advances in material wealth, there remained great distress among the people as a whole.

The Corn Laws. Since the year 1463, a number of Corn Acts had been passed to regulate the import and export of wheat. They had not much effect, however,

because until the last twenty years of the eighteenth century England produced sufficient corn for her own needs, and also a surplus for selling abroad. The increase in population which came with the Industrial Revolution put an end to this. During the French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars, the country just managed to support itself; the price of wheat rose from 60*s.* to 127*s.* a quarter, a large amount of new land was put under cultivation, and people were at the same time advised to eat less bread. After the wars it was generally felt that the continuance of some form of protection was necessary for agriculture. Land had been put under the plough, which would not pay unless the price of wheat was between 60*s.* and 70*s.* a quarter, and for many reasons it was not considered wise to allow this land to go out of cultivation. Accordingly in 1815 the great Corn Law was passed. This simply prohibited the importation of corn from abroad until the price of wheat produced at home rose to 80*s.* a quarter. Great Britain as a matter of fact could not produce sufficient wheat for her own needs, and every year more had to be imported. Thus the average price was nearly always above 80*s.* a quarter, and the 4 lb. loaf cost about 11*d.* or 12*d.*

The Sliding Scale. In 1828 the famous 'sliding scale' was made law by the Government of the Duke of Wellington. The object of this act was to ensure that the price which the British farmer received for his wheat should never be less than 64*s.* When British wheat was at this price, the duty on imported grain was to be 20*s.* per quarter. As the price in Britain rose the duty on imported wheat diminished, until when wheat was 73*s.* a quarter the duty was only 1*s.* Beyond this point the duty did not decrease.

The object of this law was to keep out foreign grain altogether when there was sufficient grown in England to be sold at 64*s.* per quarter; this would enable the farmers to keep all the land already under cultivation for wheat, and to make a fair profit. If, owing to a bad harvest or other cause, less grain was grown, and the price at home rose above 64*s.*, the import duty would be lowered, and foreign grain could come in to help the home supply.

The result of the sliding scale was not good. The foreign corn markets could not reckon upon a steady trade with England; in good years, when corn was plentiful, England would not take it from abroad; in bad years, when there was not much to spare, the English suddenly offered large sums for it.

The Anti-Corn-Law League. The population of Great Britain was increasing rapidly, yet there was not enough work for it, because the manufacturers could not sell goods to countries abroad in exchange for wheat. The free import of corn would not only make bread cheap and plentiful; it would immensely increase employment in all manufacturing industries. It was to explain this that the Anti-Corn-Law League was founded in Manchester in 1839. The most able and energetic member of the League was Richard Cobden, the son of a Sussex yeoman farmer. He had entered the calico trade as a young man without any fortune, and within a few years, by reason of his energy, his ideas, and his honest character, was making a good income. By devoting himself to his business he could have made a large fortune. He preferred to give his time and energy to the cause which alone, he felt, would remedy the sad condition of England.

The Condition of England. The state of the country in the early years of Queen Victoria's reign was very bad indeed. The population was nearly sixteen millions in 1843, and had increased by over two millions in the last ten years; but of this population the enormous number of two million were in receipt of poor relief.

Factory Legislation. The cause of the hard-worked women and children was pleaded by the statesman

CONDITIONS IN THE MINES
From the Report of the Royal Commission, 1842

Lord Ashley (afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury) and by the poets Tom Hood and Elizabeth Browning. Hood's *Song of the Shirt* was published in *Punch*, in 1843; Mrs. Browning's *Cry of the Children* in *Blackwood's Magazine*, in the same year.

Mines. Something was being done to lighten the burden of helpless children and women. In 1841 Parliament inquired into the conditions under which women and children were employed in mines. In 1842 a terrible story was told of children of four and five years old, hired out by their parents to work in the bowels of the earth, helping, upon their hands and knees, to push the trolleys full of coal. The women

often had to work in wet underground passages, where they could not stand upright, but had to crawl like beasts of burden, with the trolleys joined by a rope to their haunches. The cold, the dampness, the foul air, and severe labour caused dreadful suffering and ruined the lives of many of these women and children. As the

IMPROVED CONDITIONS
Working Coal in South Staffordshire, 1869

result of this report an Act was passed in the same year, 1842, prohibiting altogether the employment of females, or of boys under ten years of age, in mines.

Factories. This was followed by the great Factory Act of 1844, also due in a large measure to the efforts of Lord Ashley. By this Act no children under nine years of age were to be employed in a factory; those between nine and thirteen were to work for no more than six and a half hours a day. Persons between

thirteen and eighteen years old were not to work more than thirteen hours a day, including one and a half hours for meals. Machinery was to be properly guarded by framework and other devices to prevent accidents. Three years later another Act decided that ten hours should be a working day.

Progress of the Anti-Corn-Law Agitation. The Anti-Corn-Law League held meetings throughout the length and breadth of the country, and public opinion steadily grew in favour of repeal. The best minds in England supported it—Cobden, John Stuart Mill, John Bright, and lastly (though it took a long time to convert him) Sir Robert Peel.

Robert Peel was born on February 5, 1788, near Bury, in Lancashire. He was educated first by the Vicar of Tamworth, and then in 1801 went to Harrow. At this time there were at the school four boys who each became Prime Minister—F. J. Robinson (afterwards known as Lord Goderich and Marquis of Ripon), George Gordon (Lord Aberdeen), Henry Temple (Lord Palmerston), and Peel himself. Among others was young George Gordon, soon to become famous as Lord Byron.

In some respects Peel had the way to public life made smooth for him. He had no sooner left College than his father purchased for him the little borough of Cashel in Tipperary. In 1810, the year after he entered the House, he became Under-Secretary for War and the Colonies in Mr. Perceval's Government.

The rest of his life was devoted to the public service. From 1812 to 1818 he was Chief Secretary for Ireland. He was careful of the peace and order of the country, and was himself the originator of the Constabulary—the ' Peelers '—as they were called.

Peel became Prime Minister in September 1841, and began one of the most remarkable periods in Parliamentary history.

The Budget of 1842. At this time the trade of the country was not good. The heavy duties on imported goods kept out foreign trade. As few things were imported, few could be exported. Prices were high, but trade did not flourish.

THE BANK OF ENGLAND IN 1852

In 1842 new laws were passed which did away with most of the duty on the raw material of manufactures, and reduced the duty on corn by one-half. To make up for the loss of revenue, an income tax of 7*d.* in the pound sterling was established. Heavy duties on wheat and sugar had still to be paid, but most of the other trade was free.

In 1844 an Act of Parliament was passed to regulate the working of the Bank of England. This Act divided the Bank of England into two quite separate depart-

ments. The first department was to be an ordinary bank of deposit, keeping the money of its customers and making a profit on this money by advancing it to traders and merchants. The second department merely issued notes, and for every £5 note issued above the sum of £14,000,000, £5 of gold had to be kept in the vaults of the Bank. The £14,000,000 of notes were secured by an equal amount of Government stock—'Consols' or other form of British Government loan stock—in possession of the Bank. The public knows that for every £5 note issued there are either five sovereigns, or Government stock. This is why, not merely in Britain, but all over the world, Bank of England notes exchange just as if they were £5 sovereigns of full weight.[1]

The Repeal of the Corn Laws. The early years of the 'forties' were darkened by bad harvests. There had been three in succession, including 1844. In 1845 the potato crop failed in Ireland. 'Will it be believed in future ages', said Cobden in the House of Commons, 'that in a country periodically on the point of actual famine—at a time when its inhabitants subsisted on the lowest food, the very roots of the earth—there was a law in existence which virtually prohibited the importation of bread?' The country as a whole began to feel it intolerable that the people should suffer famine, when by a stroke of the pen the ports could be opened and bread made cheap.

In January 1846 Peel introduced a Corn Bill. The object of the Bill was gradually to do away with the

[1] In time of commercial crisis, the Bank Charter may have to be suspended by the Government, in order to allow an extra issue of notes, to enable businesses to meet their liabilities. This occurred in 1857 and in 1866. In August 1914 a crisis was averted, not by the suspension of the Bank Act, but by the issue of additional notes by the Treasury.

import duties on wheat, allowing three years for the process to become complete. After a great struggle in Parliament the Bill was passed.

Peel and Ireland : O'Connell. Peel, like other statesmen, found the condition of Ireland difficult to deal with. Between 1830 and 1840 Ireland was fairly quiet. By an arrangement made in 1835 Daniel O'Connell was regularly consulted with regard to the appointment of Irish officials. After 1840, however, he began to agitate for total repeal of the Act of Union. In 1843 he was to have presided over a gigantic meeting at the Hill of Tara, but at the last moment he cancelled the meeting, and so prevented a disturbance. He was sentenced to imprisonment for sedition, then liberated. After this O'Connell's influence waned. His health declined, and he died at Genoa, in 1847, aged 72.

With a view to improve the education of the Irish, Peel established three 'Queen's Colleges'—at Cork, Galway, and Belfast.

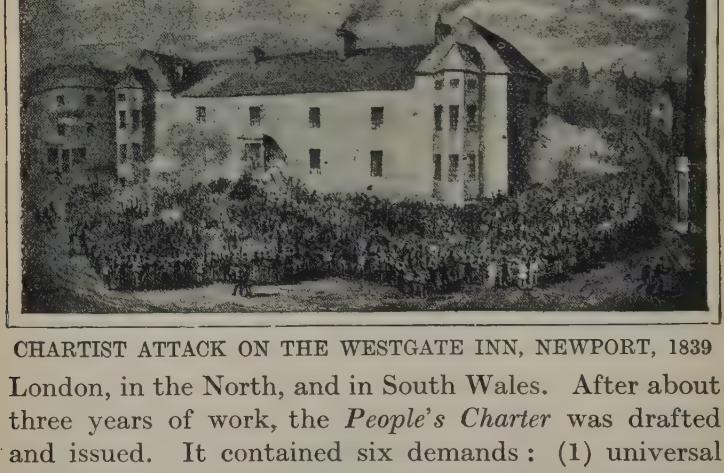
Peel's resignation ; last years. The Corn Bill of 1846 was the last great service of Peel to his country. He died on July 2, 1850, of the effects of a fall from his horse.

§ 2. The Consequences of Repeal

Chartism. Chartism arose out of discontent with the result of the Reform Act of 1832. People had thought that the passing of the Act would ease their condition. In effect wages became no higher, the cost of living no lower. Political power remained with the middle classes ; the working people got none of it. The artisan accordingly (and Great Britain was now becoming largely a country of artisans and industrial labourers)

began to agitate. He wanted more political power in order to deal with the miserable condition of the people.

The People's Charter. The demands of the working classes were voiced by Feargus O'Connor, a fiery Irishman, a barrister, and an honest, moderately able, but unbalanced man. He became the leader of a number of associations all over the country—especially in



CHARTIST ATTACK ON THE WESTGATE INN, NEWPORT, 1839

London, in the North, and in South Wales. After about three years of work, the *People's Charter* was drafted and issued. It contained six demands: (1) universal suffrage; (2) voting by ballot; (3) annual parliaments; (4) payment of members; (5) abolition of the property qualification for members of parliament; (6) equal electoral districts. In 1839 a petition in favour of the Charter was presented to Parliament. It was rolled up in the shape of a great cylinder, four feet in diameter, and on July 12 was pushed up to the Speaker's chair by twelve men. The House of Commons rejected it.

The more violent spirits then broke out into riots. The

results of tumults in Birmingham in 1839 were worse, said the Duke of Wellington, than he had ever seen in a captured town. In South Wales the riots developed once into street fighting. When order was restored in Newport, the leaders, of whom John Frost was the best known, were convicted of sedition and transported to Van Diemen's Land.

In August of the same year the less violent Chartists tried to organize a general strike. August was to be a 'Sacred Month', when no work anywhere was to be done. Fortunately the project, which, if successful, would only have ruined all the people, came to nothing.

The End of Chartism. In 1840 a National Charter Association was founded to agitate for the Charter by speeches and writings, in the same way as the Anti-Corn-Law League was conducting its peaceful yet effective campaign. In May 1842 the Association presented to Parliament a second petition, signed by 3,300,000 people. The petition again was rejected, after a powerful speech against it by Macaulay.

In 1846 came the Repeal of the Corn Laws. Discontent continued. A great meeting of Chartists was held on Kennington Common in London on the south side of the river; from there a petition was to be taken by a great procession to the House of Commons. The Government feared an outbreak of mob violence, and swore in 170,000 special constables to keep the peace: among these was a young Frenchman of striking appearance, called Louis Napoleon, shortly afterwards to become Prince President of the French Republic and then Emperor of the French. The military arrangements were entrusted to the Duke of Wellington, on whom, despite his 80 years, Whig and Tory alike calmly relied in every time of civil crisis.

O'Connor now did his last service to the Chartist cause by calling off the procession, which accordingly *did not* cross the bridge. No scenes of violence occurred, and the Charter was peaceably sent up to the House of Commons. It was said to have 5,700,000 signatures, but the actual number on examination was found to be 1,975,469. A large number of these were spurious. Among other names appended as if they were genuine signatures were *Victoria Rex*, *Prince Albert*, *the Duke of Wellington*, *Sir R. Peel*, and other obvious attempts at fraud. Chartism did not survive these revelations. The working-class Radicals began more and more to join with one or other of the two great parties which controlled the State—the Conservatives and Liberals. These two parties entered in time upon a series of reforms, which gradually included most of the People's Charter in the law of the land. Disraeli for the Conservatives, Gladstone for the Liberals, took the lead along these lines. Finally the Act of 1917, which made the suffrage practically universal, was passed by a coalition ministry of both parties.[1]

The Exhibition of 1851. It was the belief of Prince Albert that Art and Commerce led people to understand each other better, and that being so, they would come to live at peace, prosperous through commerce, educated and refined through the Arts. To this end he planned and organized, with the help of an influential committee, a great Exhibition. The Government contributed no money, but lent a site in Hyde Park. The Exhibition was housed in a great building composed entirely of glass, and iron girders and pillars, known as the Crystal

[1] Annual Parliaments and equal electoral districts are the only two points in the People's Charter which have not become law.

Palace.[1] It was opened by Queen Victoria on May 1, 1851, and lasted till October 15.

Repeal of the Navigation Acts. Peel was succeeded as

THE GREAT EXHIBITION, 1851

Prime Minister by Lord John Russell. In 1849 the Government carried through the repeal of the Navigation Acts. These Acts had prevented the import of goods from Asia, Africa, or America, except in British ships,

[1] After the Exhibition was over the Crystal Palace was bought by a company, taken down in sections, and re-erected at Sydenham, where it still stands.

or from Europe except in British ships or the ships of countries which produced the goods. Since the repeal of the Corn Laws, however, the Navigation Acts had been quite out of date, for the completely free import of corn could not take place if foreign ships were prevented from carrying it to Britain. The result of the repeal of the Navigation Acts was to reduce the charge for freights, as the shipping of the whole world now competed for them. In spite of this competition, the amount of British shipping has continued to increase.

The Completion of Free Trade. William Ewart Gladstone, Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1853, did away with the duties on the materials for manufactures, reduced the duty on tea, abolished the duty on soap, and made various other improvements. To make up for the loss in duty, the income tax was retained.

CHAPTER XXXIV

LITERATURE AND RELIGION

The Later Georgian Era. In the reigns of George IV and William IV English Literature, which had risen so high in the Napoleonic Wars, maintained its full brilliancy. George IV had some taste; this is shown in what is called the Regency style of architecture, with its broad eaves and handsome rounded windows; and the sweeping curves, the ample breadth, of Regent Street still bear witness to this, the most pleasing side of his character.

Keats. Of the great poets who made the latter part of George III's reign so glorious, only Wordsworth survived in full splendour into and beyond the reign

of William IV. Keats, the sweetest, saddest, most passionate of English lyrical poets, had died in 1821 at Rome, only twenty-six years old. Among his works were *Endymion*, published in 1818, *Lamia* in 1820, and *Hyperion*. He also wrote some beautiful odes.

Shelley. Keats was devoted entirely to the love of beauty, and had no interest in politics. His friend, Percy Bysshe Shelley, was of a different stamp, devoted indeed to the love of beauty, but equally so in the passion for political justice. His *Song to the Men of England*, and his *Masque of Anarchy*, written in the period following the Peace, entitle him to be called one of the Poets of Revolution. His other works include dramas and letters, which are written in splendid prose. He was drowned while boating in the Bay of Spezia in 1822; his body was burned on the shore in the presence of Byron, and the ashes were laid near the grave of Keats in the Protestant cemetery of Rome.

Byron. In the year 1824 Lord Byron died of malaria at Missolonghi in Greece, where he had gone, fitting out a ship at his own expense, to help in the War of Independence. He had lived only for thirty-six years, but was already almost an old man, soured by the pursuit of pleasure, and by disappointed affections. *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* is the revelation of his own unhappy soul. The easy flow of another long story in verse—*Don Juan*—reveals him in his more careless mood. The descriptions of natural scenery and famous places in *Childe Harold*—Cintra, Corinth, the Rhine, Rome—are unequalled for their tranquil beauty.

Scott. Scott had ceased to write poetry by the time George IV came to reign, and had gone far into his great series of novels. *Waverley* had appeared in 1814, *Guy*

Mannering and *The Antiquary* in 1815, *Rob Roy* in 1817, *The Heart of Midlothian* in 1818, *The Bride of Lammermoor* and *Ivanhoe* in 1819. In 1826, when thousands of people were ruined, occurred the collapse of his fortune, and he set himself to work off the load of debt that his partners had incurred. *Woodstock*, *The Fair Maid of Perth*, *Tales of a Grandfather*, and many others were written then. *Count Robert of Paris* and *Castle Dangerous* he wrote shortly before he died on September 21, 1832.

The Lake School. The poets, who at the end of the eighteenth century set themselves to picture nature in simple words, are known as the Lake School. They were all men who knew each other, and most of them loved to dwell among the lakes and hills of Westmorland and Cumberland. Robert Southey, who was born in 1774, was settled, from the year 1803, at Greta Hall, Keswick, where he continued, year after year, to produce works of poetry and of history. Few of his poems, some of which are of great length, are read to-day, except the *Battle of Blenheim*. But he will live for ever as the author of the *Life of Nelson*. His life of hard work and devotion to the public good ended in 1843.

Samuel Taylor Coleridge was a schoolfellow with Charles Lamb at Christ's Hospital. He afterwards went to Jesus College, Cambridge, got into debt, and enlisted in the Dragoons. His family, however, bought him out of the army (1794). A visit to Oxford led to his friendship with Southey ; in 1795 the two poets married sisters. Afterwards Coleridge settled at Nether Stowey in Somerset. It was here that he wrote the first part of *Christabel*, and also *The Ancient Mariner*. He died in 1834.

Charles Lamb lived from 1775 to 1834. He earned his living, which was always very modest, as a clerk in the East India House. His literary work was done in part along with his sister Mary, to whom he devoted his life, and for whom he gave up marriage, as his means did not permit him to support both a sister and a wife. Lamb's *Essays of Elia* [1] are full of humour and quiet wisdom. Some of his poems, like *The Old Familiar Faces*, will never die; and children will always remember him and his sister at least for the *Tales from Shakespeare*.

In the Lake School must be included Thomas De Quincey (1785–1859), a friend of Coleridge, Wordsworth, Southey, and Lamb. De Quincey wrote the *Confessions of an Opium Eater* and the *English Mail Coach*.

Wordsworth, the greatest of the English nature-poets, was born in 1770 at Cockermouth in Cumberland. For a time he lived in Somersetshire, a neighbour of Coleridge. In 1799 he settled with his sister Dorothy at Grasmere. Two years later he married. In 1813 he removed to his now famous home, Rydal Mount, near Ambleside. Between this time and the year 1835 much of his work was written, the long *Excursion* being completed in 1814. His last poem of any length or outstanding merit, *Yarrow Revisited*, came out in 1835, three years after the death of his friend, Scott. *The Prelude*, which had been finished in 1805, was not published till after his death. He was appointed Poet Laureate in 1843 in succession to Southey, and died in 1850.

His poems express the life of the dwellers on the soil,

[1] The essays were contributed to the *London Magazine* in the years 1820–1825. The name Elia was that of a clerk in the India Office, a colleague of Lamb's.

their homely joys, and still more their griefs. Wordsworth's language is always simple, his aims are always lofty; he points always to the nobler side of things. His influence therefore appeals to the dignity of man's nature.

Novelists : Dickens. Charles Dickens, who was born in 1812, started writing for the newspapers in 1835. In 1836 a collection of his newspaper articles appeared under the title of *Sketches by Boz*. The immortal *Pickwick Papers* came out in monthly parts between 1837 and 1839; and in 1839 *Nicholas Nickleby* also began to run as a serial story. An American tour in 1841 resulted in *American Notes*—humorous, rather caustic, historically interesting—and *Martin Chuzzlewit*. The *Christmas Carol*, one of Dickens's most satisfying though shortest works, came out in 1843; and in 1849 *David Copperfield* was published, a very long novel, full of powerful character-drawing, and generally considered to be his master-work, although some people would place *Great Expectations* (1860) at the head of the list.

Thackeray. William Makepeace Thackeray was born at Calcutta in 1811. He went to school at the Charterhouse, and later became an undergraduate at Trinity College, Cambridge. After leaving College, he travelled a good deal on the continent, on the Rhine, in France, and in Italy. His school, university, and foreign travel are reproduced frequently in the novels, especially in *Pendennis* (1848) and *The Newcomes* (1853). *Vanity Fair* came out in 1848. *Esmond*, perhaps the most perfect of historical novels, was published in 1852.

Among other noted writers of this period was Charlotte Brontë, who grew up in a quiet parsonage on a Yorkshire moor and wrote in 1847 a work of great power and genius,

Jane Eyre, which places her in the forefront of novelists. Charlotte Brontë died in 1855, aged 39.

Another novelist at this time, who will always be read, was Edward Lytton-Bulwer, the first Lord Lytton. He wrote *Pelham*, *Eugene Aram*, the *Last Days of Pompeii*, the *Last of the Barons* (a grand tale of the King-maker Warwick), *Harold* in 1848, *The Caxtons*, and the *Lady of Lyons*.

Among lesser lights may be mentioned William Harrison Ainsworth, of whose numerous works at least the *Tower of London* (1840) and *Old St. Paul's* (1841) may be recommended to any boy to read; and also Charles Lever, whose rollicking story, *Charles O'Malley*, about Ireland and the Peninsular War, came out in 1840. Lever died at Trieste, where he was British Consul, in 1872.

The Poets: Tennyson. Alfred Tennyson, who was born in 1809, and educated at the Grammar School of Louth, and Trinity College, Cambridge, brought out his first book of poems in 1827. It was not, however, till 1842 that he began to make a name with two volumes of *Poems*; in 1847 came *The Princess*, and in 1850 *In Memoriam*. In that year he succeeded Wordsworth as Poet Laureate.

Browning. Robert Browning was born in the year 1812 at Camberwell. His father was in prosperous circumstances, and provided plenty of books for the boy to read.

His historical poems are all marked by intense vigour and originality. His wife, Elizabeth Barrett Browning, whom he married in 1846, was already at that time a well-known poetess. A great portion of the poems by herself and her husband were written in Florence, which was their home for many years.

Historians. The most noted of these were Henry Hallam, who wrote the *Constitutional History of England*, which was published in 1827, and Thomas Babington Macaulay, whose brilliant and learned *History of England* began to come out in 1848.

John Ruskin, who wrote about art; John Keble, a writer of religious verses, and John Newman, who wrote, among other sacred verses, 'Lead Kindly Light', deserve also to be mentioned among the leading writers of the period.

XXXV. THE CRIMEAN WAR

Illustrated by contemporary photographs

The Eastern Question. In 1852 Russia was no longer a protector of the Turks; the Tsar Nicholas advocated something like what was later called the 'bag and baggage' policy. He had several conversations concerning Turkey's expected collapse with the British Ambassador at Paris, Sir Hamilton Seymour. On February 20, 1853, he said 'the Sick Man is dying, and we can never allow such an event to take us by surprise. We must come to an understanding.' Great Britain, however, would not agree to any scheme of division, in spite of the Tsar's warning.

The Holy Places. There were two disputes which led to the outbreak of the Crimean War—one dispute was over the 'Holy Places', the other concerned the question of a protectorate over the Greek Church. The Holy Places really meant the church at Bethlehem, which was built over the spot where Our Lord was born. The Latin (or Roman Catholic) monks at Bethlehem (who

METROPOLITA

were generally considered to be under the protection of France) claimed the right, not of possessing the church, but of having their own keys into it. The church itself was in the care of Greek monks, in whom, of course, Russia took a particular interest. Both the Tsar Nicholas I and the Emperor Napoleon III brought all possible diplomatic pressure to bear on the Turks. Napoleon won, and the Latin monks received keys to the Church at Bethlehem and to the Grotto of the Sacred Manger (May 4, 1853).

Having been beaten over the question of the Holy Places, the Tsar determined to enforce another demand. In February 1853, a grand Russian official, the Prince Mentchikoff, with a gorgeous staff, had come to Constantinople and demanded that the Tsar should be recognized as the protector of all the Sultan's Greek Church subjects. On the advice of the British Ambassador at Constantinople the Sultan, Abdul Mejid, refused this.

On receiving this refusal the Tsar, who had made all the necessary preparations, gave the order for his army to cross the Pruth, and to occupy the Principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia which were subject to Turkey (July 1853). The Ambassadors of the Powers drew up at Vienna in August the 'Vienna Note', to try and make peace, but Russia would not agree.

War. The British and French fleets were sent to Besika Bay (just south of the entrance to the Dardanelles) as a precaution. On October 14 they passed through the Dardanelles.

About a month afterwards (November 30, 1853), a Turkish squadron taking transports to Batoum was met by a Russian squadron off Sinope and destroyed.

This action seemed like a direct challenge to the navies of Britain and France, which were then actually at Constantinople. Public opinion in Britain and France was indignant. On January 4, 1854, the Franco-British fleets entered the Black Sea, but it was not till February 27 that an ultimatum was sent to St. Petersburg. This demanded that Russia should withdraw her troops from the Principalities. No reply was given, and war accordingly ensued.

The Invasion of the Crimea

The Periods of the War. The history of the Crimean War may be divided into two portions. The first portion to July 1854 comprised the operations of the Turks to drive back the Russians who had crossed the Danube, and further to expel them from the Principalities. This first part of the war has really nothing to do with the Crimea, and France and Britain did nothing in it. The second and best-known part of the war is the expedition of the French and British with a small Turkish force (supported later by the Sardinian troops) to the Crimean Peninsula. This expedition occupied the period from autumn 1854 to the spring of 1856.

Silistria and Giurgevo. The first part of the war can be briefly dealt with. The Russians took the offensive in May 1854, by crossing the Danube and laying siege to Silistria. This weak fortress was successfully defended by the Turks : [1] and the Russians withdrew again to the north side of the Danube on June 23. The

[1] They were led by three young Englishmen, who went to Silistria out of pure spirit of adventure : they were Lieut. Chas. Nasmith of the Bombay Artillery, Capt. James Armar Butler of the Ceylon Rifles, and Lieut. John Archibald Ballard of the Bombay Engineers. Butler was killed in the siege.

Turks followed the retreating enemy across the Danube and defeated them at Giurgevo, on July 7. After that the Tsar, pressed by the Austrian Government, which threatened war if he remained in the Principalities, withdrew his troops to the Russian side of the Pruth.

The Allies at Varna. The Russians had not given up their claims to interfere in Turkish affairs. To bring this about the Allies had to carry through the war to a finish.

In June 1854 the French and British forces had assembled at Varna, on the coast of Bulgaria, with a view to co-operating with the Turks on the Danube. The sooner they could leave it the better, for cholera had broken out among the troops. On July 16, Lord Raglan, the British Commander, received orders to proceed with his forces to the Crimea, and to capture the naval port of Sebastopol. The British Fleet commanded the Black Sea and no opposition could be offered to it in transporting the army. There was much delay, however, in getting the necessary transports: for this and other reasons the Allied Forces were not able to leave Varna till the autumn, when the terrible Russian winter was soon to begin. On September 14 the troops landed in the Crimea.

The Alma. The Allies had between them about 60,000 men, while the army which under Prince Mentchikoff barred their way on the Alma heights numbered only about 40,000. On September 20, in lovely autumn weather, the Allies began their march, the French on the right, the English on the left, and the fleet sailing parallel with the march of the army. From the left side of the little Alma river rise wooded hills, and in these the Russians were well posted and entrenched. The

British forces crossing the river first came in contact with the enemy. The Russian guns played upon them, but could not beat them back, and soon at different points of the line hand-to-hand fighting took place. The Highland Brigade under General Sir Colin Campbell particularly distinguished itself. The heights were stormed by the British. The Russians lost 4,800 killed and wounded. The Allies had 3,000 killed and wounded, of whom 2,002 were British. The Russians withdrew in extreme disorder, and Lord Raglan proposed an immediate pursuit and an advance upon Sebastopol. The north side of the town was poorly defended, and it is practically certain the Allies could have entered it there and then. St. Arnaud, the French Commander-in-Chief, however, refused to let his men advance without a rest, and so the chance to capture the fortress at once was lost (September 20), and the Allies had to settle down to a long siege.

The Siege

The fortifications of Sebastopol on the land side consisted of four forts, regularly built for taking big guns: the Malakoff, the Redan, the Little Redan, and the 'Stone' Redoubt.

Balaclava. North of Balaclava are two valleys running parallel with each other towards Sebastopol. Between the north and the south valley (the one near to Balaclava) was a ridge, known to the British as the Causeway Heights, and along it ran the 'Woronzow road' to Sebastopol. The Causeway Heights were fortified with British guns manned by Turkish soldiers. The Russians after a stiff fight carried the Heights and took the guns. Then, one after the other, occurred three brilliant feats of

arms which saved the day and have made the battle famous.

The first occurred when the Russians came streaming down to Balaclava Inlet. General Sir Colin Campbell was in charge here, with the 93rd Foot and some Turkish battalions. The Turks were panic-stricken and fled, but the 93rd stood firm, a 'thin red line' two deep,

BALACLAVA HARBOUR. WITH BRITISH FLEET AND TRANSPORTS

prepared to die where they stood. Their commander had called upon them to do so, and they had replied 'Ay, ay, Sir Colin, we'll do that'. The Russian cavalry threw itself against the thin red line in vain.

Soon another danger threatened the British base. Two thousand Russian horse appeared in the north valley. They were immediately charged by General Scarlett and the two squadrons of the 'Heavy Brigade', consisting of only 300 men of the Inniskillings and Scots Greys. This splendid charge, delivered at the right moment before the Russian cavalry had formed them-

selves to attack, was completely successful. The Russian cavalry was broken. This, the second brilliant incident of the battle of Balaclava, like the resistance of the thin red line, showed the judgement of the leaders as well as the courage of the men.

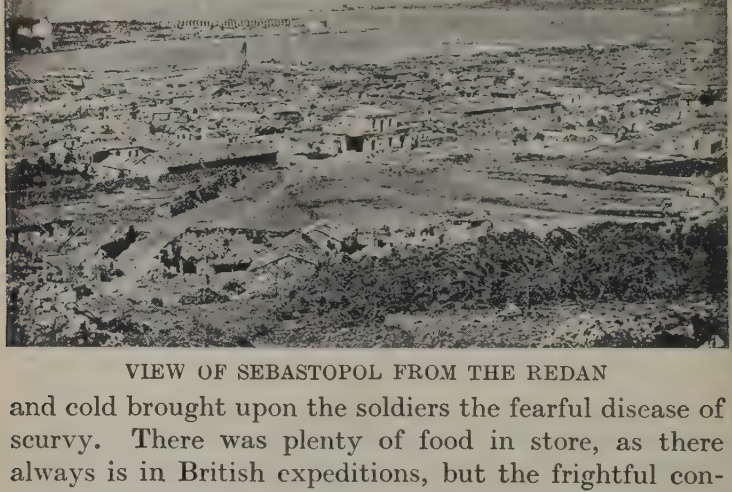
The third incident, the most famous of all, showed no qualities of judgement in the leader, but the same heroism and brilliance of the cavalry. The Causeway Heights, the low hills which the Turks had occupied with British guns, had been taken by the Russians. Lord Raglan sent a message to Lord Lucan, in chief command of the cavalry, to send them forward to recover the Heights ; they would be supported by infantry, the order stated. Lord Lucan had serious doubts concerning the chances of such an attack, and was doubtful about the precise meaning of the order. He put some questions to Captain Nolan, the galloper who brought the message. Nolan had nothing to do with the tactics of Lord Raglan, and when Lord Lucan asked him ' what guns were meant ? ' the galloper with some impatience waved his hand vaguely forward, saying ' There, my lord, is your enemy, there are your guns '. Lord Lucan at once rode over to where Lord Cardigan sat on his horse at the head of the Light Brigade, and told him to charge the guns at the end of the north valley. Lord Cardigan quietly saluted again, turned for a moment in the saddle to say ' The Brigade will advance ', and then set his horse in motion. The magnificent brigade, with the 13th Hussars and the 17th Lancers in the first line—the eager horses, the strong, impetuous, care-free men, clad in the splendid uniform which has now passed away—advanced with the jingle and rhythm which seemed to be gathering together all the panting forces of horse and man for the

last tremendous charge. Before the brigade had attained full speed Captain Nolan was seen riding across its front, waving his arms as if to divert it to another object. He meant no doubt to signal it to the Causeway Heights, and the effort cost him his life. A bullet struck him down, and the Light Brigade surged by, along the fine smooth floor of the valley, 'into the jaws of death'. They were raked by the gunners and riflemen from the slopes on either side, and they received the direct fire of the batteries in front. They rode straight to the guns at the head of the valley, sabred the gunners, passed beyond, and would (what was left of them) have been engulfed by the masses of Russians who were coming upon them from the heights, when a timely charge of the French Chasseurs d'Afrique gave them respite to return.

The charge of the Light Brigade is one of the most glorious memories of the British Army, and no one can say it was useless. Out of 607 men who went into the charge only 195 returned. Lord Cardigan, whose splendid charger took him easily first into the Russian guns, received only a slight wound.

Inkerman. The battle of Mount Inkerman was begun at dawn on November 5. The Russians, now in great strength, made a determined attempt to relieve Sebastopol. The grey dawn in that damp misty country made the grey coats which the Russian soldiers wore almost invisible. It was called a 'soldiers' battle', because in the mist which prevailed generalship was impossible. The chief part was taken by the Guards who held Mount Inkerman, and no assaults could dislodge them. The losses were something over 4,000. The Russians lost rather more, and their attempt to raise the siege failed.

The Crimean Winter. Winter had now set in with abundance of snow and rain and biting wind. The roads turned to mud, the ground where it was tramped upon became a quagmire. The soldiers, when not in the water-logged trenches, had only tents to rest in. On November 14 a great storm of driving sleet and rain washed down a large number of the tents and ruined the camp. Dirt



VIEW OF SEBASTOPOL FROM THE REDAN

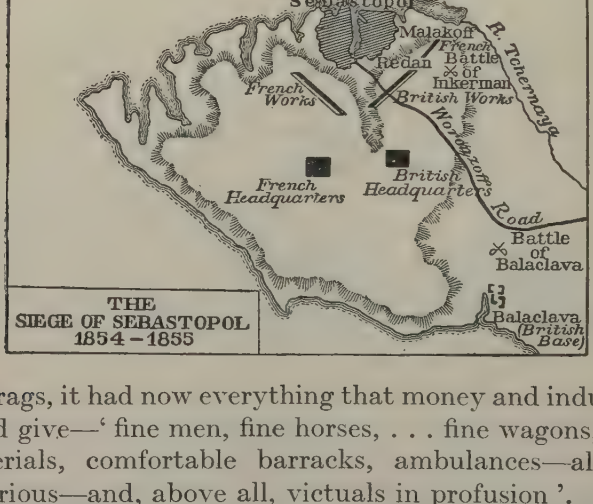
and cold brought upon the soldiers the fearful disease of scurvy. There was plenty of food in store, as there always is in British expeditions, but the frightful condition of the road from Balaclava, and the deaths among the mules, prevented the food coming regularly up to the line. The sufferings of the army were terrible, and when the men got to hospital their plight was little better. Half the number that entered the British hospitals at Scutari (opposite Constantinople) died. When the new year 1855 opened, just over half (13,000 out of 25,000) of the British Forces were on the sick list. The indignation and the sympathy of the public at home were roused by

the discovery of this state of affairs. The great days of newspaper correspondents, like Sir William Russell of *The Times*, were beginning. They were allowed to move freely with the forces; their reports were not censored; and their graphic accounts conveyed a lively impression home. Educated women came forward and devoted themselves to relieving the miseries of the men. Already, on November 4, 1854, Miss Florence Nightingale had arrived at Scutari, and from that time may be dated the slow but steady improvement of the British health service. The work of Miss Nightingale is not merely a landmark in the history of the Crimean War, but also in that of mankind. With her began the great public interest in hospitals and nursing. Miss Nightingale's long and useful life lasted till 1910 when the British hospitals had become models for the world.

The year 1854 closed with gloom in Great Britain. Recruiting was in a bad state. The Government even stooped to pass through Parliament a Foreign Enlistment Bill. Nobody liked the Bill, which aimed, as Cobden remarked, at upholding British honour by cut-throats taken from the back slums of Germany. The Government said it was necessary, and the Bill became law, and foreigners were accepted for the army.

Palmerston Prime Minister. Lord Derby next tried to form a Conservative Ministry, but found he had not sufficient support in the House of Commons. So the Queen had to turn to the other party. She would have liked Lord John Russell to be Prime Minister; but public opinion pointed to Lord Palmerston, who, in spite of his seventy years, was the only man likely to finish the war satisfactorily (February 1855). Lord Palmerston now became Prime Minister, and his energy soon

became evident in every department; the public confidence revived, recruiting improved (enlistment for three instead of ten years was now introduced), and the supply services of the army were splendidly equipped. A military road and light railway were constructed by a firm of contractors from Balaclava to the British lines; and whereas before the British Force had been in want



and rags, it had now everything that money and industry could give—'fine men, fine horses, . . . fine wagons, fine materials, comfortable barracks, ambulances—almost luxurious—and, above all, victuals in profusion'.

Continuation of the Siege. During the winter the siege had almost ceased to be worthy of the name. The Russian forces in the Crimea steadily increased, and it is said that in spring 1855 they numbered about 200,000. The Allies never had enough forces completely to surround Sebastopol. Russian supplies of men, food, and munitions were regularly introduced from without. The fortress would never be starved out, yet the British

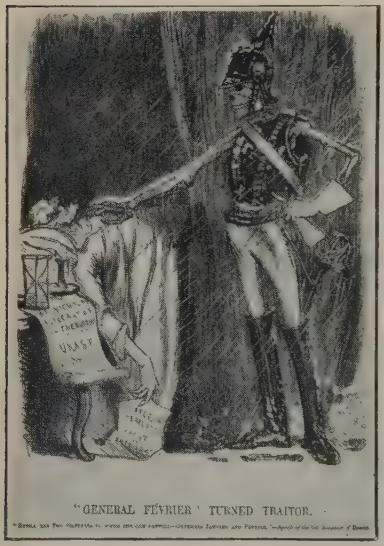
and French kept their grip on the town, and gradually advanced their lines. In May 1855 every one was encouraged by the arrival of 15,000 Italian soldiers. Victor Emmanuel, the King of Sardinia (later King of Italy), had resolved to join the Allies. Sardinia was a sea power, and interested in keeping Russia out of Constantinople.

The Last Events. Lord Raglan died on June 29, 1855, having done his duty faithfully to the last.

By September 8 everything was ready for the final grand assault on the fortress. The Allies now had plenty of big guns. A violent and well-directed bombardment battered the redoubts. Then the infantry were to attack—the French against the Malakoff, the British against the Redan. At noon the great assault began. The French showed courage and dash: in face of a terrific resistance they carried the great Malakoff Redoubt. The British assault failed, but the Malakoff commanded the Redan, which accordingly became untenable. Sebastopol could no longer be held and during the same night the Russian Commander-in-Chief led his men out by the Harbour side of the town.

End of the War. The expedition into the Crimea had been undertaken to show the long arm of England and France; and the siege of Sebastopol was regarded as a kind of test whether the Russians should be considered beaten or not. Lord Palmerston had become Prime Minister with a mission from the public to take Sebastopol and end the war. Having got Sebastopol Britain and France decided together to end the war. The Tsar Nicholas had died on March 2, 1855, at the age of 59, and *Punch* published a cartoon by John Leech—'General February turned traitor', in allusion to the

terrible Russian winter which was usually so fatal to Russia's enemies. The cartoon has become very celebrated. The Russians scored one success before the war ended. Their army in the Caucasus had been besieging Kars in Armenia for three months when Sebastopol fell. The Turkish garrison of Kars was commanded by Colonel William Fenwick Williams, who had been sent as a British Commissioner with the Turkish army. Ably assisted by two other Englishmen, Colonel Lake and Major Teesdale, Williams held Kars till November 28. Every assault of the Russian army was beaten back, and the city only capitulated in the end through starvation. The defence of Kars is one of the great events of its kind in history, and the leader became justly popular in England as 'Sir William Fenwick Williams, Baronet, of Kars'.[1]



"GENERAL FÉVRIER" TURNED TRAITOR.

Peace of Paris. The war was ended by the Treaty of Paris, May 30, 1856, which admitted Turkey into the Concert of Europe, and declared the Black Sea to be neutralized, and the Dardanelles and Bosphorus closed

[1] He was then 55 years of age. In 1865 he appears as Governor of Nova Scotia, and in 1881 he was made Constable of the Tower of London. He died in 1883.

to the warships of all Powers except Turkey. Russia gave up her claim to be Protector of the Greek Church subjects of Turkey.

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE LAST HALF-CENTURY OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY

Leading Features. In the years after the close of the Napoleonic Wars there were still in India powerful and completely independent States; and because of their power, and their desire to quarrel, these States were sure, some time or other, to come into collision with the British Government in India. Thus there occurred a number of wars, some of which ended with the taking of territory by Great Britain. The chief wars were with the Pindaris (who did not form a State, but were merely hordes of brigands), the Mahrattas, the Afghans, and the Sikhs; to these must be added wars with Sind, with the Burmese, and with China—these last two wars occurring outside India. This 'fighting period' ended with the Mutiny in 1857–1858.

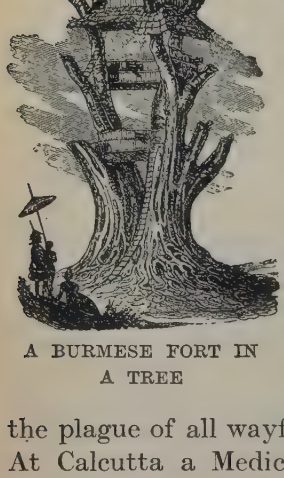
§ 1. The Period of Expansion

After two campaigns in Burma which caused great loss of life to the British forces among the swamps of Rangoon, a treaty was concluded with the King of Burma (February 1826). The king ceded the provinces of Aracan and Tenasserim, and accepted a British resident at his capital of Rangoon.

The Burmese War had caused unrest in India, especially in Bhurtpore, the great fortress of Rajputana. Now in 1825 a usurper tried to seize the government

from the child Raja whom the British supported. A regular army was sent against Bhurtpore, which was besieged and captured (January 18, 1826) after Lord Combermere, the Commander-in-Chief, had sprung a huge mine that breached the walls like an earthquake.

Lord William Bentinck became Governor-General of India in 1828. He did much good work which has left its mark on all the institutions of British India. The carrying out of the law was made quicker and less expensive. Natives were allowed employment in government offices, and since that time have been employed far more widely than is commonly understood, in the Government of India. The hideous and barbaric custom of suttee, by which Hindu widows burned themselves on the pyre of their husbands, was abolished by law; and Thugs, a religious society of garrotters, the plague of all wayfarers, were rooted out of the land. At Calcutta a Medical College was established, where native Indians (who had hitherto practised only an ignorant and mischievous quackery) could be trained, as they have been trained with splendid success, in the art of healing. Under Macaulay's influence education was introduced on Western plans.



A BURMESE FORT IN A TREE

In 1833 the Charter of the East India Company was renewed for twenty years; the Company was left in existence as a governing corporation, but was absolutely prohibited from engaging in trade. The Charter Act

also declared that no native of India should, by reason of religion or race, be disabled from holding any place of employment under the Company.

Lord Auckland. In 1836 Lord Auckland became Governor-General. Within a year he had engaged upon a tremendous military adventure, the tragic issue of which forms one of the saddest pages in Indian history.

At this time Russia was gaining power throughout Central Asia, and Lord Palmerston began to fear danger in India. To keep Russia back, Palmerston authorized Lord Auckland to take control of affairs in Afghanistan.

The Ameer of Afghanistan refused to ally himself with the British and plainly preferred the friendship of Russia. In March 1837, 21,000 men advanced from Sind. They penetrated the Bolan Pass, and occupied in turn Kandahar, Ghazni, and Kabul. A former Ameer Shah Shujah was restored to the throne, and 8,000 men under General Elphinstone were left to support him. Two British civil agents were also left at Kabul—Sir Alexander Burnes and Sir William Macnaghten (1838).

Before two years were over, Shah Shujah was a fugitive, and Elphinstone's army was besieged in its camp outside Kabul by Akbar Khan. On December 23, 1841, Sir W. Macnaghten, who had gone out to parley with Akbar, was murdered either by the Khan himself or one of his officers. In spite of this act of treachery Akbar was trusted by General Elphinstone, who made a convention for leaving Kabul under safe conduct. On January 6, 1842, the British army, consisting now of only 4,500 men (690 British soldiers) and 1,200 camp followers, marched for Jellalabad, 80 miles to the east, where there was a British garrison. It never reached Jellalabad. Harassed by Afghans all the way, it was

cut off in the Jagdalak Pass. Only one man, the doctor Brydon, succeeded in struggling on his pony into Jellalabad.

This frightful catastrophe shook the foundations of British power in India, inasmuch as it was the first time that a regular British army had been defeated and destroyed by natives.

Jellalabad was held by Major-General Robert Sale from November 1841 till April 1842. When General Pollock came up from Peshawar to relieve Jellalabad on April 7, 1842, he found that Sale had already relieved himself. He had that very day sallied forth with his brigade of war-worn heroes and had defeated Akbar's despondent army in the open field.

Lord Ellenborough. Just before the relief of Jellalabad, a new Governor-General, Lord Ellenborough, had come out. Nothing really remained to be done but to withdraw from Afghanistan, with as good a grace as possible. A country of unscalable mountains, rocky valleys, and untamed fighters, it could not be held by a few regiments as an outpost of British India. Yet to leave Afghanistan, with the British arms defeated and disgraced, would be to give up the British name in India itself. Accordingly General Nott, commanding the garrison in Kandahar, the last important place held by the British in Afghanistan, was ordered to advance upon the capital, Kabul; and General Pollock was ordered to do the same thing from Jellalabad. Nott, the son of a Carmarthen innkeeper, had had 42 years' service in India, and now crowned his career by a splendid march from Kandahar to Kabul, capturing on the way the historic fortress of Ghazni.

General Pollock was equally successful in his advance

from Jellalabad. Kabul was occupied after hard fighting on September 15, 1842. Ninety-five captives, the survivors of Elphinstone's ill-starred force, were recovered, and the great bazaar was burned as an example to the Afghans.

The power of the British having been thus triumphantly displayed, the army left Kabul on October 12. Dost Mahommed, then a prisoner in Calcutta, was allowed to return as ruler over the unruly country which he alone could control.

Sind. This was a Hindu State on the lower Indus, ruled by chiefs known as Mirs (Amirs). At the time of the Afghan War the British Resident at Haiderabad, the Sind capital, was Major Outram, the 'Bayard of the East'. The East India Company was allowed by treaty to have a garrison in Sind, which after the Afghan War was put under General Sir Charles Napier. Napier was a great soldier and a fine ruler. In February 1843 the Sind army made a sudden assault on the Residency at Haiderabad, and Napier at once took advantage of this to come out in force and to overthrow the whole Sind power at the battle of Meanee (February 17, 1843). Sind was annexed and under Napier's[1] kind and orderly administration became a prosperous and contented province. It is now the most northerly part of the Bombay Presidency.

Almost the last act of Lord Ellenborough in India was to declare slavery to be against the law.

The First Sikh War. Sikhism is a pure religion. Its

[1] The noble bronze statue of Napier stands to-day in Trafalgar Square; it was paid for by a public subscription to which the majority of contributors were the private soldiers who loved the memory of their general.

followers lived in the land north of the Sutlej, the country of the Five Rivers—the Sutlej, the Jhelum, the Chenab, the Ravi, the Beas—tributaries of the Indus. The Sikhs had many chiefs, but at the end of the eighteenth century one chief succeeded in becoming master over all the rest. This was Ranjit Singh, a man of great will-power, a good soldier and wise ruler. He built up a powerful State, with a splendid army of infantry, cavalry, and especially artillery, trained by French officers.

Ranjit Singh had the sense to see that the British could only do him good as friends, and throughout his active life (he was born in 1780 and died in 1839) he remained at peace with them. After his death, however, things changed. The Sikhs began to make raids into British territory across the Sutlej.

When in December 1845 the Sikh army crossed the Sutlej, everything was ready. Sir Hugh Gough, the Commander-in-Chief, marched straight from Umballa for the scene of action. On December 18 he found the Sikh army strongly posted at Moodkee, and at once attacked them with 10,000 men. The Sikhs had the same number. At the end of the day they were driven off the field with the loss of 17 guns.

After this the Governor-General, Sir Henry Hardinge, who was himself a fine soldier, came up to the army, and chose to serve as a volunteer under Gough. On December 21 the British again attacked the reinforced Sikh army, which was under the chief Lal Singh ; again the enemy's entrenchments were stormed, and this time 73 guns were captured. The Sikhs retired behind the Sutlej, while Gough collected fresh forces to renew the campaign. A Sikh raid across to the British side of the

Sutlej was cleverly defeated by Sir Harry Smith [1] at Aliwal.

After their defeat at Aliwal the Sikhs made one more fight, at Sobraon. Here with their backs against the Sutlej they met the fiery Gough on February 10 (1846) and were routed and driven into the river with terrible carnage. The British then crossed the Sutlej and captured Lahore. The Punjab was not annexed, but was made into a Protectorate, under the East India Company.

Dalhousie. Lord Dalhousie is perhaps the most praised and the most blamed of all the great Governors-General. It was he who made modern British India the ruling power of the whole Peninsula ; while some people say he made the Mutiny.

Dalhousie was only thirty-five years of age when he arrived in India. He was a small man, with a noble, rugged head, a keen glance, and a haughty, commanding mien. Every one who came near him admired and loved him, and no man ever showed more real consideration for the feelings of his subordinates.

Second Sikh War. The first large addition which he made was the Punjab, the noble province of the Five Rivers.

On April 18, 1848, only three months after Dalhousie had arrived in India, one of the Sikh chiefs called Mulraj rebelled at Mooltan. Two young British officials, Mr.

[1] Harry Smith, like nearly all the prominent officers of this period, had served in the Peninsular War, where he learned his business in the school of the Duke of Wellington. He had also fought in America in 1814, and in South Africa against the Kaffirs in 1835. He was to return later to South Africa as Governor in 1847, where his memory is preserved in Harrismith, Ladysmith (called after his devoted Spanish wife), and Aliwal North.

Vans Agnew of the Civil Service and Lieutenant Anderson of the Bengal Fusiliers, were murdered. Before his death Vans Agnew had time to scribble a note and to send it off by messenger to the Commissioner of Bannu, which was about 150 miles away. This note was opened by Lieutenant Herbert Edwards of the Bengal Fusiliers, a dashing soldier of twenty-nine years, who was then working among the tribes on the northern frontier of the Punjab. At once throwing aside his work, and accompanied only by his escort and such other natives as would follow him, he made for Mooltan, and maintained a guerrilla campaign against Mulraj for the next four months. While the Commander-in-Chief at Simla was preparing a regular campaign for the cool weather, Edwards by sheer courage, resource, swiftness, and decision kept the country round Mooltan for the British.

By September 4 Lord Gough had got everything ready and the siege of Mooltan opened; but that historic city, lying high above the dry river-bed of the Ravi, defied the British siege train, and on September 15 (1848) Lord Gough had to strike his tents. The rebellion then spread over the whole Punjab.

Lord Dalhousie, however, was equal to the occasion. Troops were concentrated on the Sutlej: the Governor-General himself came up to the Punjab. Lord Gough's army was strongly reinforced, and on January 13 it met the Sikhs at Chillianwallah in the country between the Jhelum and the Chenab. The Sikhs were driven off the field, but their well-directed artillery did great execution among the British forces. A loss of 2,338 men was taken very seriously by the authorities in London, and Lord Gough was at once superseded by General Sir

Charles Napier ; but before the new commander arrived, Gough had overthrown the Sikhs at Gujarat (February 21, 1849), ten miles from Chillianwallah.

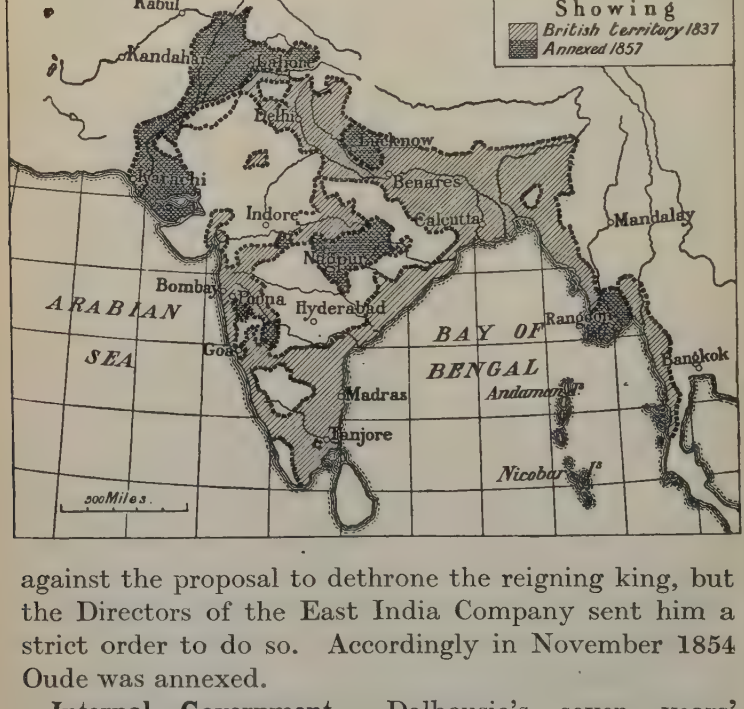
Gujarat practically closed the Second Sikh War. The Punjab was annexed and put under a board of three—John and Henry Lawrence and Charles Greville Mansell. The military power of the Sikh chiefs was entirely destroyed, but they were allowed to keep their lands and personal distinctions. The new territory was 73,000 square miles in extent, and under the British it has prospered exceedingly. The condition of the peasants has improved with light and regular taxation, and with the irrigation of the land. The loyalty of the Sikhs, in the Mutiny and subsequently, has become proverbial.

The Expansion of India. The annexation of the Punjab brought the British Dominion to the borders of Kashmir and Afghanistan, and created the North-West Frontier. Towards the east, Dalhousie made another great extension by the annexation of Lower Burma.

The First Burmese War had gained for the East India Company a strip of country on the east of the Bay of Bengal. The native king of Lower Burma, who called himself *The Elder Brother of China* and *The Lord who is the Greatest of Kings*, had been very troublesome to the British. In 1852 Dalhousie sent an expedition under General Goodwin to the Irawaddy ; and Lower Burma—the province of Pegu (including Rangoon)—was annexed.

The annexation of Oude caused much discontent, and is held to have been partly accountable for the Mutiny. Oude was a ' kingdom ' which, since the time of Warren Hastings, had been closely connected with the East India Company. The king was protected by British

soldiers, and a British Resident was at his court at Lucknow. The last Resident, Colonel Outram, reported in 1854 that Oude was given over to anarchy and the cruellest oppression, the result of two successive reigns of wicked kings. Nevertheless Lord Dalhousie was



against the proposal to dethrone the reigning king, but the Directors of the East India Company sent him a strict order to do so. Accordingly in November 1854 Oude was annexed.

Internal Government. Dalhousie's seven years' government in India brought peace and prosperity to the country. The exports and the imports were doubled. The great network of railways was planned. The electric telegraph and the one anna (halfpenny) post

were introduced. Education among the natives was much improved.

The great Governor-General retired in February 1856, worn out by his incessant labours. At an age when other men are in the prime of life (he was just 44) he could only hobble on crutches to his ship. His successor in India was Lord Canning.

§ 2. The Mutiny and the End of the Company

Causes of the Mutiny. The Sepoys, the native soldiers, in the middle of the nineteenth century were discontented with their pay and prospects.

They thought that the power of the British Raj was low, because everywhere they saw five native soldiers to one British; and as the native soldiers were just as well armed as the British the odds were all in their favour. The disaster to General Elphinstone's army in the Afghan War had not been forgotten by the natives of India. For the last eighteen months rumours had been flying over the East that in the Crimea British arms had been defeated. At the same time England was engaged in a war with China.

Dalhousie's reforms, his railways and telegraphs, his annexations, and particularly the annexation of Oude, had disturbed the natives' minds and for a time created an unrest. India was a sort of powder magazine, ready to be ignited. The Rani of Jhansi, a State which had lapsed to British rule, was a great supporter of the Mutiny; the Nana Sahib, the adopted son of the late Peshwa, was another.

The greased cartridge was only one of the ways in which the prejudices and fears of the Sepoys were used by the dissatisfied. Muskets, the old-fashioned, smooth-

bored weapons, had recently given place to a new pattern —the Minié rifle, with a grooved barrel. This required a greased cartridge, and the agitators said the grease was made from the fat of cows and pigs; the Hindu could not bear the idea of the cow's grease, while the pig's was equally offensive to the Mussulman. As a matter of fact the Indian Government had not thought specially about the composition of the grease, but as soon as the trouble was brought to its knowledge orders were given that no cow or pig fat was to be used in the preparation; but the Sepoys could not be made to believe this.

The Outbreak. This then was the condition of affairs in January 1857, when mutterings were heard in the native regiments of the Bengal army. On March 29 a Sepoy ran wild, and tried to start a mutiny; but General Hearsey, regardless of his personal safety, went among the Sepoys and controlled them, and by a marvel escaped assassination, although his adjutant was shot dead.

The fire, once kindled, spread over Bengal. At Meerut the Sepoys mutinied and went off to Delhi, twenty-five miles distant, while the British soldiers were parading to go to church. When the mutineers reached Delhi, the whole city rose as if mad.

The few British soldiers and officials in Delhi could do nothing to stop the gigantic tumult. The powder magazine was defended by nine officers and men under Lieutenant Willoughby. When things became hopeless, the British blew up the magazine and made a dash for safety. Only three escaped; Lieutenant Willoughby got through the Kashmir gate, but was cut down on the Meerut road. The British women and children in the

Palace were all murdered. The slaughter of little children in the Mutiny is the most awful condemnation of the whole movement, making the memory of it one of horror for all time.

The Siege of Delhi. At Delhi the British telegraph officer had remained at his post, sending off messages till the mutineers came and murdered him. His work was done, however. Next day the news had reached every camp and barracks in India. Lord Roberts, as he tells in *Forty-one Years in India*, was quartered at Peshawar when, on May 11 (1857), ' a telegraph signaller rushed in breathless with excitement, a telegram in his hand, which proved to be a message from Delhi *to all stations in the Punjab*,' telling of the mutiny at Delhi and Meerut.

At Calcutta, at Simla, and at Lahore it was known that Delhi, the royal city of the Moghuls, was the centre of the Mutiny. Against Delhi, therefore, troops were concentrated at Umballa, 120 miles to the north. On hearing of the Mutiny General Anson at once left Simla, and next morning reached Umballa. He organized the Field Force and would have led it against Delhi had not cholera struck him down. On his death Sir Harry Barnard, a Crimean officer, took over the command. Early in June the British Field Force advanced on Delhi, and on June 9 it stormed the Ridge outside the city.

The Force (British and loyal Indian) numbered only about 5,000 men ; and it was supposed to be besieging a walled city of 150,000 inhabitants, held by 15–20,000 trained troops. The Punjab movable column, however, was on its way, led by John Nicholson, who was, as Lord Roberts says, a *man among men*.

This great bearded hero had a way that no man could resist. On the road to Delhi, at Jullundur, a general of the Native State Army called Mehtab Singh came to visit the British officers, with his shoes on. John Nicholson noticed this, and when Mehtab was leaving the room suddenly rose and stalked over to the door, waving the general back with an authoritative air. 'If I were the last Englishman left in Jullundur,' he said, 'you should not come into my room with your shoes on.' Lord Roberts, who witnessed the incident, then saw Mehtab look 'extremely foolish' and taking off his shoes leave the room.

At the end of July the Punjab movable column had joined the Field Force in front of Delhi. Besides the trials and dangers of continuous fighting, other ills, the worst of which was cholera, assailed the British Force. General Barnard died on July 5, and on the 17th his successor General Reed had to give up the command owing to ill health. He was succeeded by General Archdale Wilson, but he too was ill, and Baird Smith, his able second-in-command, always a delicate man, was suffering intensely from the severe Indian summer. The life and soul of the army was John Nicholson—always in the thick of the fight, asking the men to go only where he himself was the first.

After four months of incessant fighting, amid heat, thirst, and sickness, the Field Force was ready for the great assault. By September 14 the walls had been breached and the city stormed. But the heroic Nicholson, ever first in the fight, had been mortally wounded. He lingered for nine days; the Native Chiefs and Officers who had known him came to see him on his death-bed, and as they looked upon their fallen hero the strong Sikh warriors broke into passionate tears.

Cawnpore. While the siege of Delhi was going on, the fearful massacre of Cawnpore had occurred. This place was a military station in Oude, 42 miles south-west of Lucknow. The 3,000 native soldiers were easily led away by Nana Sahib. This heartless man first besieged General Wheeler in the hospital. On June 27 Wheeler, after holding out for 21 days, capitulated to save the

THE WELL AT CAWNPORE

women and children, for the place was now quite untenable. The Nana gave a solemn promise to spare the lives of all the inmates, but when the women and children had got into the open boats upon the Ganges he let his followers loose upon them. With gun-fire and rifles the helpless people were shot to death. There were about 800 men, women, and children. All except 210 were massacred. When, on July 15, General Havelock's relieving force was still a day's march from Cawnpore, the Nana had the remaining women and children

murdered too; their bodies were hacked to pieces and thrown down a well.

Lucknow. At Lucknow, the capital of Oude, the Mutiny broke forth at the end of May. Sir Henry Lawrence, the administrator, tried to use some loyal native soldiers against the mutineers, but finding himself

BAILEY GUARD GATE, THE RESIDENCY, LUCKNOW [1]

practically powerless he retired to the Residency, a large, three-storied building, situated in about 60 acres of ground, weakly protected by some ditches and stockades. The garrison consisted of 855 officers and men, 153 civilian volunteers, and 712 loyal native troops, mainly Sikhs. There were 1,280 non-combatants. For nearly three months shot and shell poured into the enclosure; on July 4 (three days after the siege began) Lawrence died from a shell wound. The command devolved

[1] From a contemporary photograph.

upon General Inglis, a distinguished Nova Scotian soldier.

The column sent from Allahabad to relieve Cawnpore and Lucknow by Lord Canning was commanded by General Havelock. Cawnpore was entered on July 17, but Lucknow still had to be relieved. No praise can be too great for the way he kept to his task, and animated his men in their long series of fights. Eight hard-fought and successful battles still left him with masses of enemy between him and Lucknow. In September General Outram, his superior officer, joined him with reinforcements. He refused to take over the command when Havelock's long-sustained effort was all but complete, but went with the relief force as a volunteer, and fought in the final operations which relieved Lucknow on September 25. The siege had lasted 87 days.

Havelock and Outram were only able to reinforce the garrison and to revictual the Residency. They were in turn hemmed in by the mutineers. Sir Colin Campbell,[1] however, the new Commander-in-Chief, was busy organizing another relief force on a large scale. Actually he was able to get 4,500 trained men together; against him there were about 60,000 rebels.

On November 3 Campbell's force advanced to Cawnpore. Roberts, who was there already with the Delhi

[1] Colin Campbell was then 65 years of age. He was a native of Glasgow, educated at the local High School, and at the age of 16 became an ensign in the 9th Foot. He had fought in the Peninsular War, in the American War of 1814, in the slave revolt in Demerara (1823), in the Chinese War of 1842, the First Sikh War of 1848–1849, and the Crimean War, where he commanded the Highland Brigade. It was his 'thin red line of Highlanders' which saved the day at Balaclava. When on June 11 the awful news of the Mutiny reached London, Lord Palmerston at once offered Sir Colin the Indian command. The veteran sailed the next evening.

soldiers, tells how the soldiers were lashed to fury to see the tresses of hair and strips of dress lying still on the scene of the massacre. Campbell stayed at Cawnpore till November 11, and then began his steady advance on Lucknow. On the 15th the garrison in the Residency heard the boom of his guns and then the 'skirl' of the Highlanders' pipes; on the 16th he was shaking hands with Havelock and Outram.

The Residency was evacuated, and the women and children were taken back with the army to Cawnpore. General Outram was left with about 4,000 men to hold the Alam Bagh, a palace of the Oude princes, 4 miles from Lucknow; but the noble Havelock had died of dysentery a week after the Residency was relieved. Campbell had a regular campaign still to fight clearing the country round Delhi, while Outram held the Alam Bagh against about 120,000 of the enemy. Not till March of the next year (1858) was the city of Lucknow actually in the hands of the British, helped by 15,000 Ghurkas whom the Prime Minister of Nepaul brought to our aid.

The Central Provinces. The Mutiny was now at an end in Bengal.

The extinction of the Mutiny in the Central Provinces was due to General Sir Hugh Rose, one of the finest officers in Britain's military history. At that time Rose was 56 years of age. His great exploit was the storming of Jhansi in May 1858, after he had defeated Tantia Topi's relieving force of 20,000 with 1,500 men. In June he captured Gwalior, which the mutineers of Sindia's army had seized. It was in the Central Provinces that the greatest danger lay, for they were not hedged round, as Bengal was, with 'a ring of steel', but Rose suppressed

the rising in that vast area and prevented it spreading throughout the length and breadth of India.

The Result of the Mutiny. The Mutiny had not broken the power of the British Raj. Rather it had shown, in the mighty deeds of small bodies of British and loyal native troops, the strength of our dominion. The British public, thoroughly aroused by the tragic and exciting events to their responsibility for India, felt that the time had come for a closer union. On August 2, 1858, the Government of India was transferred by Act of Parliament from the East India Company directly to the British Crown. 'John Company' thus brought its long and honourable history to a close.

China. Opium, exported from India, formed a large item in British trade with China. In 1840 the Chinese Government confiscated the stocks of opium belonging to British traders at Canton. This act provoked the First Chinese War (1840–1842), which resulted in the cession of Hong Kong to Great Britain. In 1856 there was a Second War, due to the Chinese authorities seizing the *lorcha* (trading schooner) *Arrow* flying the British flag. The chief events in this war, which lasted till 1860, and in which French forces co-operated, were the capture of the Taku Forts by General Sir Hope Grant, and the occupation of Tientsin and Pekin. Two British envoys who were negotiating to end the war, Sir Henry Parkes and Henry (afterwards Lord) Loch, had been seized and tortured by the Chinese. In consequence of this, the Allies on entering Pekin burned the Imperial Summer Palace. As a result of the war certain cities and ports of China were opened to foreign trade; and representatives of the Powers were for the first time established at Pekin.

CHAPTER XXXVII

PALMERSTON

§ 1. A Retrospect

Birth and Education. Henry John Temple, Viscount Palmerston in the Peerage of Ireland, was born at the family mansion of Broadlands, Hampshire, on October 20, 1784.

Palmerston went to Harrow, where he had the reputation of being the pluckiest and best-tempered boy in the school. Although not supposed to be much of a scholar or a reader, he never forgot what he learned at school.

In 1802 Temple's father died, and the young man became Viscount Palmerston, inheriting considerable wealth, including Irish estates (near Sligo), which he visited as often as possible, and which he managed with the greatest care. In 1803 Palmerston went into residence at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he stayed three years, gaining good reports from his tutor for regularity of conduct and for the place he took in the College examinations.

At the end of his course at College he became a candidate for the position of one of the two members of Parliament for the University—a position rendered vacant by the death of Pitt in January 1806. He was defeated, however. Failing to be elected for Cambridge, he got himself returned for Newport, in the Isle of Wight, a pocket borough of Sir Leonard Holmes. Palmerston was then twenty-three years old, keenly interested in politics, especially in foreign affairs, as

may be seen from the careful journal which he kept at this time. For the rest of his long life he was a member of the House of Commons, and even when eighty years old and burdened with all the work of Prime Minister he remained famous for his constant attendance at the House. Although he became one of England's best-known public speakers, he spent his first year in Parliament without opening his mouth.

During his long life he held many of the high offices of the State, but it was not till he was seventy years of age that he became Prime Minister.

Prime Minister. In 1855 Palmerston became Prime Minister with a mission from the country to finish the Crimean War. This he did satisfactorily, and after the signature of the Treaty of Paris in March 1856 he might reasonably have expected a quiet time to follow. As a matter of fact he was almost immediately faced with a short war with China, and next with the terrible and prolonged crisis of the Indian Mutiny. Coming just after the Russian War, the Indian Mutiny was a terrible blow to public confidence : the British Empire seemed to be breaking to pieces. Palmerston, however, never for a moment lost his courage and confidence, and the suppression of the Mutiny justified the opinion he had expressed (when people proposed that foreigners should be enlisted for service in India) that ' we ought to win this innings against the Sepoys off our own bat '. Palmerston resigned in February 1858.

Lord Derby's Second Government. The Earl of Derby, who succeeded Palmerston, was ably supported by Disraeli. They passed the Government of India Bill which did away with the ruling power of the East India Company and brought India directly under the Crown.

A Bill was also passed admitting Jews as Members of Parliament.

§ 2. Foreign Affairs, 1859–1865

Palmerston's Second Ministry. When Lord Palmerston became Prime Minister for the second time he was 75 years old. He was the most popular man in England. Every one liked the vigorous, neatly-dressed old man, with his deep laugh, his unfailing good temper, his frank courtesy, and his complete absence of humbug. People never had any uneasy feeling that he was concealing anything: whatever 'Pam' (or 'Palmy') said he meant, and whatever he thought about public affairs he said distinctly enough, regardless of the consequences. He was a well-known figure in London, walking or riding to Parliament from his residence (Cambridge House, Piccadilly, now the Naval and Military Club).

The feature of this last six years of Palmerstonian Government (he was still Prime Minister when he died) was peace and quietness at home, and a consequent high level of production in all directions. But abroad there was a very different state of affairs.

Sardinia was struggling to expel the Austrians and to unite all Italy. The Danes were being plundered of Schleswig-Holstein by Prussia and Austria, and shortly afterwards Prussia and Austria were fighting each other. In America a great struggle went on for five years between the Northern and Southern States. In each of these wars Great Britain had a strong interest, yet under Palmerston's leadership she managed to keep at peace.

Italy. In 1860 the Italians, as the result of an agree-

ment made with Louis Napoleon, had to give Nice and Savoy to the French for their help in the war against Austria. The alarm of 1860 caused the beginning of the Volunteer Movement, which provided the country with a voluntary, unpaid, and extremely keen and capable citizen army of 300,000 men, which in 1907 became the still more important Territorial Force.

The 'Thousand'. In May 1860 Giuseppe Garibaldi, the adventurous sailor and soldier of Nice, took by sea an expedition consisting of one thousand Piedmontese 'red-shirts' to Sicily, and conquered the whole island which was supposed to be held by its garrison of 20,000 Neapolitan troops. Having taken Sicily, he began to prepare to cross the Straits to the Kingdom of Naples. The Government of Louis Napoleon proposed that the English and French fleets should interfere to prevent this. The British Government refused. Garibaldi crossed the Straits, landed on the mainland, and within a week had added Naples to the Crown of Victor Emmanuel. Thus the second great step was taken towards

Italian unity under a free government, with the peaceful support of England. The same attitude was shown by the British Government at the next two stages, in 1866, when Venice was taken from Austria, and finally in 1870 when Victor Emmanuel entered Rome. All the Italian-speaking peoples south of the Alps were thus united under their own government. There were some still left out in the north-east of the Alps and in Dalmatia. In 1915 Italy repaid the sympathy shown by England and joined in the Great War, her immediate object being to wrest these outlying lands from Austria, an effort which was crowned with success.

Prussia and Austria made war on Denmark in 1864, and seized Schleswig and Holstein and shared them together.

Later, Prussia seized Austria's share and thus became a power in Germany.

By the Treaty of Versailles 1919, after the Great War, Denmark has received the northern part of Schleswig back again.

PADDINGT

The American Civil War. In 1861 the great Civil War began between the Northern and the Southern States of America. The men of the Northern States were farmers and manufacturers. The men of the South grew cotton, tobacco, and rice, largely with slave labour. Life in the Southern States was very like that of rural England. Thackeray has drawn a pleasant picture of their life in the eighteenth century (in *The Virginians*). Life among the lower ranks of Southerners is described with much humour in Mark Twain's *Huckleberry Finn*.

The import of slaves into the United States had been stopped in 1808, but within the country the negroes and their children were still the property of their masters, and were bought and sold like cattle. The treatment of the slaves was in general mild, and a strong attachment often existed between them and their masters.

Cause of the Civil War. The Northern and many 'Middle' and Western States were 'Free'; they did not allow slavery within their borders. The Southern States—Virginia, Maryland, the Carolinas, Florida, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas—allowed slavery. The Federal Government could not legally abolish slavery, and it had not tried to do so. The Civil War was not fought to put down slavery in the South but to prevent the Southern States from setting up a Union of their own.

Thus slavery was not the direct cause of the Civil War; the war was fought to decide whether there should continue to be one Federation of United States or two.

When Abraham Lincoln, the eloquent lawyer of Springfield, Illinois, was elected President in November 1860, the Southerners feared he might get slavery abolished in the Southern States. To prevent any such

step they met together in the spring of 1861 and elected a President of their own, Jefferson Davis, and so proceeded to establish themselves as separate *Confederate States of America*. They seized the Union forts and garrisoned them with their own men. They formed an army, and found two magnificent leaders in Robert Lee and 'Stonewall' Jackson, both of whom were regular soldiers in the U.S. Army. Abraham Lincoln, supported by all the Northern States, denied the right of the Southerners to secede from the Union. The two sides then went to war, early in 1861. It was not till September 1862 that the Northern President declared slavery to be abolished in the South.

The Interest of Britain. On the whole the sympathy of England, certainly among the middle and upper classes, was with the South. England, and particularly Lancashire, suffered from the stoppage of cotton imports; for the North blockaded the Southern ports. The raw material for the cotton mills could not be shipped to England, and as a result fearful distress prevailed in Lancashire.

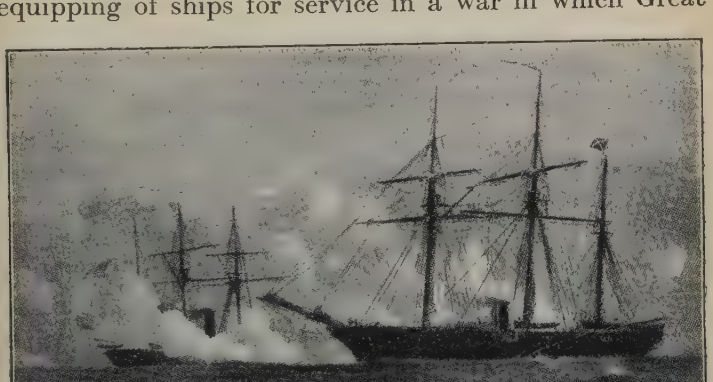
The Trent. In November 1861 the Southern States appointed a Mr. Mason to go as their representative to England and a Mr. Slidell to act as representative in France. The two deputies sailed from Havannah for Europe in the British mail steamer *Trent*. On the 8th the *Trent* was stopped by a Northern cruiser, the *San Jacinto*, and the two Southern deputies were taken prisoner. This the United States Government had no right to do.

A dispatch, partly worded by the Prince Consort, demanding the release of Mason and Slidell was sent to the U.S.A.

The careful wording of the dispatch did not offend the Americans and the two men were released and taken to Southampton in a British warship.

A month after this Prince Albert died.

The Alabama. The Foreign Enlistment Act of 1819 forbids, besides the recruiting of men, the building and equipping of ships for service in a war in which Great



THE LAST OF THE *ALABAMA* (in the foreground)
Caught and destroyed off Cherbourg by the Federal *Kearsage*, June 1864

Britain is neutral. In 1862 a fast steamer, known later on as the *Alabama*, was being built for the Confederate Southern service in the yards of Messrs. Laird at Birkenhead. The United States ambassador brought the matter to the notice of the British Government on July 26 (1862). Owing to one of the Law Officers of the Crown being ill, Lord John Russell was not able to get their opinion about the legality or illegality of the *Alabama* till the 28th. When the Law Officers reported that the case of the *Alabama* was illegal, Lord John sent to detain the vessel. On that very afternoon, however,

it had sailed. The *Alabama* was commissioned as a privateer of the Confederate States of the South, and, like the *Emden* in 1914, played havoc amid the rich sea-borne commerce of its enemies. When it met its fate off Cherbourg, on June 19, 1864, at the hands of a Northern warship, it had captured 69 prizes from the mercantile marine of the Northern States. The North naturally protested and demanded an apology and compensation.

The American Government claimed over nine million pounds of compensation: they actually received three and a quarter.

The Cotton Famine. While the Civil War was still going on, the fall in cotton imports brought about a terrible amount of unemployment in Lancashire. 1862 was a year of great privation in the country. All classes behaved well, the workers enduring their lot with calmness and common sense, and all who could contribute giving largely of their money. Before the end of the Civil War cotton-supplies were found in Egypt and India.

The Civil War ended with the complete victory of the North after four years' struggle on April 9, 1865. Five days later President Lincoln was assassinated by an actor when listening to a performance in the theatre at Washington.

§ 3. Domestic Affairs, 1860–1867

Free Trade and Free Paper. Mr. Cobden went to Paris (in October 1859), was received by the Emperor Napoleon, and discussed with him the question of free trade between the two countries. A commercial treaty was drafted between England and France (Jan. 1860):

British coal and iron were to be imported at greatly reduced duties into France, and French manufactured goods and wines at reduced duties into England. This treaty increased the commerce between the two countries and helped the two great peoples to understand each other.

The Paper Duty. In 1860 Mr. Gladstone, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, brought in a Bill to abolish the tax on paper. The object of this was to enable books and newspapers to be made cheap, and within the means of any one to buy. For years the Edinburgh printers and publishers, William and Robert Chambers, had been issuing good literature at low prices. Recently, however, they had been forced, owing to the tax, to give up publishing one of their most widely read series. The Bill to repeal the paper duty passed the House of Commons, but was thrown out by the Lords.

Mr. Gladstone was not to be beaten, however, and in the next year, 1861, the Bill was passed.

In the next Government, which was a Conservative one, Disraeli in February 1867 brought in another Reform Bill. This was passed although it was strongly opposed by Mr. Robert Lowe and other leading men.

This Bill gave the vote to all male householders and also to lodgers who paid £10 or more as rent for their rooms.

It also added 25 seats to the counties, and where towns with less than 10,000 had two members the number was reduced to one.

The next year Disraeli became Prime Minister, but in November of the same year he resigned and Mr. Gladstone, a Liberal, took his place.

Literature. The noted writers of the mid-Victorian

period include Thackeray, Dickens, George Meredith, Anthony Trollope, and Disraeli.

Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* and Browning's *The Ring and the Book* are well-known works.

Among other distinguished men were John Stuart Mill who wrote *Principles of Political Economy*, and Herbert Spencer who wrote on scientific subjects.

Painting. In the mid-Victorian period there was a large and distinguished school of artists. The chief were John Everett Millais; Frederick Leighton, a painter of very gorgeous colours; and G. F. Watts, famous for his portraits.

Other great men were Darwin, whose *Origin of Species* was published in 1859, Simpson who introduced the use of chloroform, and Bessemer noted for his discoveries in the manufacture of steel.

§ 4. Shipping

Navigation. The repeal of the Navigation Acts was followed by a big increase in British shipping. In the fifty years before 1849 British shipping had been losing ground as compared with American. This was due largely to the fact that New England possessed splendid harbours and navigable rivers, with magnificent timber growing practically to the water's edge. Therefore, in building wooden ships, America had a great advantage over England, and her fast sailing ships—*Clippers*—became famous all over the world. England's shipbuilders were never *beaten*; and nothing of its kind was better than the Clippers built in Aberdeen after the repeal of the Navigation Acts. But the American ships were gaining a greater share of the world's trade.

If, however, the Americans had natural advantages

for building wooden sailing ships, Great Britain, with her coal and iron mines near the sea, had similar advantages for making iron steamships.

Steamships. Actually the first steam-driven boat was made in America—in Virginia—in 1784. Scotland began her great industry of shipbuilding in 1801, when William Symington constructed the S.S. *Charlotte Dundas* for the

AN EAST INDIAN CLIPPER

Forth and Clyde Canal Company. In 1834 John Laird of Birkenhead began building large steamships, and the East India Company was enterprising enough to give orders to his yards.

Iron Ships. Like all other ships, the first steamships were made of wood, but iron was soon found to be more suitable. In 1842 the East India Company possessed four iron ships, which the Admiralty (having none itself) was glad to get the use of for the China War in that year. Even in the Crimean War the fleet which Admiral Sir

Charles Napier took to the Baltic (1854) consisted of wooden sailing ships fitted with steam-engines to supplement the sails. The most famous iron ship of the nineteenth century was the *Great Eastern*, designed by Brunel. It was 692 feet long and 118 feet wide over

AN EARLY CUNARDER

the paddle-boxes, and cost £732,000. It was used to lay the Atlantic cable in 1865.

The success of British shipbuilders and shipping companies is proved by the fact that when the war started in 1914 Great Britain possessed eleven and a half million tons out of the total shipping tonnage of the world, namely twenty-two and a half million.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

GLADSTONE'S FIRST MINISTRY

§ 1. Gladstone's Public Life

William Ewart Gladstone was born at Liverpool in 1809. His father was a wealthy merchant, who gave his son the best education possible at the time.

In December 1832 Gladstone was elected a member of the first reformed Parliament, and, except for two sessions, he remained a member till 1895. At first he was a Tory. After the death of Peel, Gladstone gradually drifted away from the Conservative Party, and in 1859 he joined Lord Palmerston as a Whig.

Character as Politician. Gladstone was a man of enormous power of work, with complete sincerity and high sense of responsibility. Politics to men of his stamp was not a game, not an occupation nor a means of livelihood, but a solemn duty.

Policy as a Statesman. As a statesman Gladstone may be said to have had four great interests: one was the Church of England; the second was economy; the third was peace; and the fourth was Ireland.

§ 2. Ireland

The Irish Church. Gladstone, who was anxious to see Ireland a settled and contented country, approached the problem by three stages: the first stage was the Church, the second the land, the third was Home Rule. The Church was the easiest question to settle, so it was dealt with first.

The Union Act of 1800 had declared the Church in

England and in Ireland to be 'the United Church of England and Ireland'. One Irish archbishop and three Irish bishops had seats in the House of Lords.

The bulk of the Irish people being Roman Catholics desired that the Church should be separated from the State.

Mr. Gladstone agreed and a Bill was passed to disestablish it, and, in consequence, the Irish archbishop and bishops no longer sat in the House of Lords.

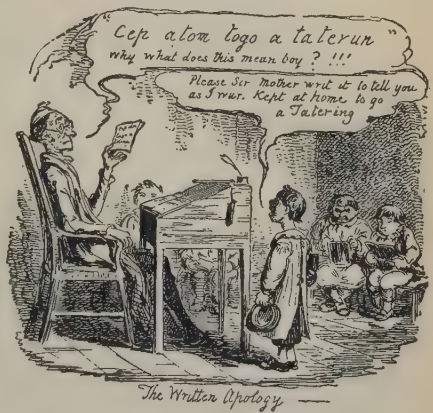
The Irish Land System. The next part of the Irish Question which Gladstone proceeded to tackle was the land. Previous attempts to deal with the problem had met with only a very little success. One great grievance of the Irish Catholic peasants had been the compulsion to pay over one-tenth of the produce of their land to the Protestant clergy of the Church of England and Ireland. This grievance was removed in 1838.[1]

The great flaw in the Irish Land System was that though the tenants had to improve the land and to erect the necessary buildings, all such improvements and buildings became the property of the landlord. Only in Ulster were outgoing tenants regularly allowed by custom to sell their goodwill and improvements to the incoming tenant. Moreover, owing to the large population and the small amount of land suitable for cultivation,[2] rents were often forced up to a point which the land could not properly bear. It was to deal with these faults that Mr. Gladstone in 1870 had the First Irish Land Act

[1] In England also tithe had been commuted, by an act of 1836, into a rent-charge, which is based every year upon the average price of corn in the preceding seven years.

[2] The population of Ireland in 1841 was eight millions. In 1870 it was five and a half millions. About one-ninth of the land of Ireland is bog.

passed. By this the Ulster Tenant Right was recognized as legal where it already existed. Tenants evicted otherwise than for not paying their rent were to be compensated by the landlords for disturbance. Compensation was also to be given for improvements made by any outgoing tenant. Tenants who wished to buy their land, and who could induce their landlord to sell, could borrow the purchase-money from the Government.


"Cep atom togo a tatervun"
why what does this mean boy? !!!
Please Sir Mother writ it to tell you as I wur. Kept at home to go a Tatering
The Writter Apology

A VILLAGE SCHOOL
Caricatured by George Cruikshank in 1834

§ 3. Education

English Education Act. Before the year 1870 there was no *universal* system of education in England. The public schools provided education at a high charge for the upper and middle classes; and the National Society under the guidance of the Church of England had schools where instruction was given for very small charges. In addition to these Church Schools, which were good, there was a large number of private schools, for all classes of the people. Some of them were expensive and well-conducted and were of the type of Dr. Blimber's Academy in *Dombey and Son*; some were cheap and scandalously managed, like the school of Mr. Wackford Squeers, 'Dotheboys Hall' in *Nicholas Nickleby*.

The Elementary Education Act of 1870 was largely the work of Mr. W. E. Forster, Vice-President of the Privy Council, the body which had and still has charge of education. By this Act the whole of England and Wales was divided into school districts; each borough was to be a district by itself, elsewhere the civil parish was to be the district. Where the church and other schools in any district were already numerous enough and good enough, no change was to be made. In every other district a School Board was to be elected, with the duty of providing education for children between the ages of five and twelve. The education thus provided would be cheap, but not free; one-third of the expenses would come from a Government grant of money, one-third from a local rate which each School Board had power to levy, and the remaining third was to come from school fees.

The old system differed from the present one in two important points: attendance at school was not compulsory, nor was the education free. Church schools, under the Act of 1870, were allowed to give instruction according to the teachings of their own Church; they received the State grant of money but no aid from the rates. In the schools provided by the School Boards religious instruction was to be given, but without the catechism or the special teaching of any particular Church or sect.

The educational system established in 1870, and since extended, has secured that every one in Great Britain can read and write; the aim is that people should have the knowledge necessary to engage in work and to occupy their leisure; they are further encouraged to think for themselves, to extend their knowledge, and to realize

their duties in their family and in the nation. The Act of 1870 has been very much improved during later years. The age for leaving school has been raised to 14 years. By the Act of 1902 School Boards were abolished and 'Council' Schools took the place of 'Board' Schools. The Councils have established 'Central' and 'Secondary' Schools where boys and girls are educated till they reach the age of 18 years.

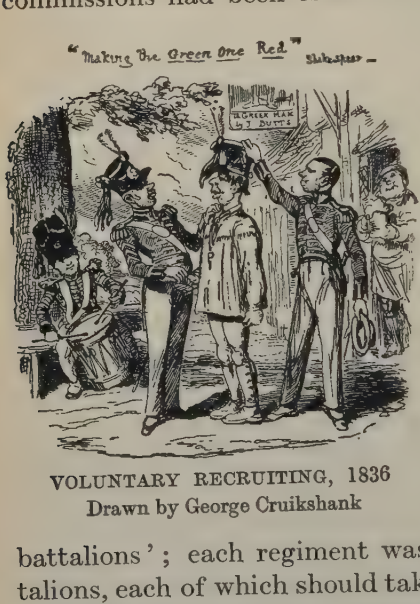
In addition to these, technical schools provide a sound training in science, art, and handicraft. Thus a fine education—literary, scientific, industrial, agricultural—is within the reach of every one.

§ 4. Army Organization

Army Reform. Since the time of Charles II, when the modern British Army began, an officer's commission was a kind of property which he sold to another man when he himself resigned or was promoted. A youth desiring to be an officer had to get the approval of the colonel of some regiment, and then, when a vacancy occurred, he bought the position of ensign from the last holder; and after that, every step was gained by paying the last holder until the rank of colonel was reached. If the high authorities approved, a wealthy young man might advance himself rapidly to the position of colonel, beyond which point no further purchase was possible. The system favoured wealth. It was by this means that Arthur Wellesley had become a lieutenant-colonel at the age of 23, having served only brief periods with his regiment. The prices paid for commissions were regulated by Royal Warrant.

In 1871 Mr. Cardwell introduced a Bill to abolish purchase in the Army, with compensation to the existing

officers for the prices they would have received. In the House of Lords every soldier except Lord Sandhurst (General Sir William Rose Mansfield, a veteran of the Indian Mutiny) was against the measure, and at last the Government had to drop the Bill altogether. Mr. Gladstone was not to be beaten, however. Purchase of commissions had been established by a simple warrant from the Crown, and by the same means it could be undone. On June 18, 1871, the Queen, on the advice of the Government, signed at Osborne the Warrant abolishing purchase in the Army. It had never existed in the Navy, so now the two services were put on the same footing.



VOLUNTARY RECRUITING, 1836
Drawn by George Cruikshank

Cardwell also created the system of 'linked battalions'; each regiment was to consist of two battalions, each of which should take it in turn to be abroad, in India or the colonies. Thus every soldier would have foreign service, which in an Empire like that of England often meant active service.

It was not enough for Great Britain to have a small perfectly trained army; she must have a reserve of trained men who could be used to deal with war on a great scale. For this purpose Cardwell established the short-service system, which had been tried during the

Crimean War. Hitherto the usual period of enlistment was for 10 or 21 years, or for life. Under Cardwell's system the shortest term was for three years, and the longest twelve. Thus a constant stream of men passed through the ranks and then went back to civilian life as trained men, with the obligation of rejoining the Colours in time of war. The events of August 1914 have shown how vital it was for England to have her trained reserve.

§ 5. Foreign Affairs

The Franco-German War. In foreign politics the growth of Prussia had been engaging the attention of statesmen for ten years. Count Bismarck, the son of a Pomeranian squire, had, by the year 1860, become known as one of the most able and determined statesmen in Europe.

The war by which Prussia and Austria seized Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark was followed in 1866 by a 'Seven Weeks' War' between the two victors. The defeat at Königgrätz laid Austria low, and left Prussia free to make an Empire out of the rest of Germany. Prussia had annexed several small States after the Seven Weeks' War with Austria. She formed a 'North German Confederation', with the King of Prussia as President. Finally, in 1870, she made war on France and called on all the German States to engage in a common national struggle.

The war was really one of aggression on the part of Prussia, although Count Bismarck managed to get France to declare war first. It did not last long. Within six months the Prussian armies, perfectly equipped, organized, and directed by the great soldier Helmuth von Moltke, broke the military strength of France at

Sedan (September 1870), and at Metz (October). The French Empire fell. Immediately after Sedan a republic was established (September 4), and Louis Napoleon came to live as an exile at Chislehurst in Kent.

Britain's Attitude in the War. The British Government took no part in this war. Its only concern was to see that neither France nor Prussia should violate the neutrality of Belgium, of which Great Britain was one of the guarantors under the treaty of 1839. The British Government, as soon as the Franco-Prussian War started, made one treaty with Prussia and another with France. By the first treaty Gladstone pledged Great

Britain to join Prussia in the war, if France should violate Belgium; and by the second treaty he engaged to join France in the war, if Prussia should interfere with Belgium. The result was that both France and Prussia were equally careful, and while the war raged near its territory Belgium remained undisturbed, and Great Britain was not drawn into the struggle.

During the war the sympathy of England was on the whole with France. Young Herbert Kitchener, who had passed out of Woolwich, enlisted in General Chanzy's 'Army of the Loire' in January 1871. On the other hand, there were people who admired the thoroughness and patience of the Germans. Such a man was Thomas Carlyle.

In February 1874 Mr. Gladstone resigned, and Disraeli became Prime Minister.

CHAPTER XXXIX

DISRAELI

§ 1. Disraeli's Career

Place in English History. In a century of remarkable statesmen—Canning, Wellington, Peel, Palmerston, Disraeli, and Gladstone—Disraeli was the most striking. Gladstone, with his earnestness, his eloquence, and strength of will, could sway the people; but Disraeli, with a lighter touch, kindled their spirit and fired their zeal. The one was to the public always 'Mr. Gladstone', the stern and Grand Old Man: the other was 'Dizzy'—laughed *at*, laughed *with*, admired—never losing his dignity, at once the Earl of Beaconsfield and the people's friend.

Early Life. Benjamin Disraeli was born in London on December 21, 1804.

He loved reading, and educated himself in many subjects at home, and was taught at a private school.

At the age of seventeen Disraeli was articled to a well-known firm of solicitors in Old Jewry. It was literature, not the law, that attracted him, and at the age of twenty-two he suddenly became known to the public as the author of *Vivian Grey*; and from this year, 1826, almost to his death in 1881, there came at frequent intervals from his pen a series of novels.

Travels. The young Disraeli was fond of travelling, and had a fine eye for the picturesque abroad, at home, and in London. Between 1828 and 1831, having left the solicitor's office, he went on a long tour through Spain, Italy, and Palestine. The pale, dark, hook-nosed, fantastically dressed young man did not meet with sympathy everywhere.

Politics. In 1837 Disraeli was elected member for Maidstone, as a Tory, in the first Parliament of Queen Victoria. His maiden speech was a dead failure, and amid shouts of laughter he sat down saying 'the time will come when they *will* hear me'. Nevertheless, the leaders, always on the look-out for young men of ability, noticed him, and the great Sir Robert Peel himself gave him encouragement. In 1839 he married Mrs. Wyndham Lewis, who brought him a considerable income; with her money he was able to buy Hughenden Manor, in Buckinghamshire, and to live the life he so much admired, that of a rich and dignified English country gentleman. Mrs. Disraeli devoted herself entirely to the furtherance of her brilliant husband's career.

Disraeli strongly opposed Free Trade and formed the

group, known as *Young England*, opposing Peel, but supporting improvements in rural housing, and the factory acts.

In 1874 Disraeli got his real chance: he was returned to Parliament at the head of a large Conservative majority. He was now not merely 'Prime Minister of England', but one of the most powerful, most talked of, most popular Premiers that had ever been. The chance had come at last, but almost too late—he was in his seventieth year.

§ 2. Domestic Politics

For the next six years this brilliant leader governed the country well.

Britain had been engaged in no great war since the Crimean period. The National Debt was being steadily reduced, and the Income Tax now stood at 2*d.*, in the pound (1874). Next year, 1875, a useful Act was passed to improve houses in the larger towns. The *Artisans' Dwellings Act* gave Corporations, in towns with over 25,000 inhabitants, power to compel the owners of insanitary houses to sell them to the authorities so that they might rebuild them. The object was to provide good small houses for artisans.

The *Employers and Workmen's Act* (1875) followed upon a big and unsuccessful strike of agricultural labourers, which occurred in 1874. This Act did two things, which have had far-reaching effects: first, it laid down that an act which might legally be done by an individual did not become illegal when done by a combination of persons. The second thing which the Act did was to establish that strikers who persuaded others by peaceful means to leave their employment could not be tried as

criminals. It was the Employers and Workmen's Act which enabled Trade Unions to establish themselves firmly in the industrial world.

In the next year, 1876, the *Merchant Shipping Act* was passed. Most shipowners did not overload their ships, or send them to sea in an unseaworthy condition, but some did both these things, and men's lives were lost without any necessity, and people gambled in the insurance of bad ships. The Government itself did not move in the matter until Mr. Samuel Plimsoll, Liberal member for Derby, had worked heart and soul for twenty-five years, in and out of the House, to bring the matter to their attention. The Merchant Shipping Act of 1876 gave the Board of Trade power to stop unseaworthy ships from leaving port, and it established the ' Plimsoll ' mark, the water-line above which ships must not load.

§ 3. Foreign Affairs

Since the Crimean War England had been at peace, although there had been three great wars in Europe. The soul of the country, indeed, was not dead, yet there was a fear that should war at some future time appear necessary, the people might turn away from it and risk their fate along the path of peace. The sparkling speeches of Mr. Disraeli, however, on international affairs, kept the country alive as to its duty.

By 1877 this new spirit—which its admirers called *Imperialism* and its opponents called *Jingoism*—became prominent in the land.

The Suez Canal Shares. Perhaps the most far-sighted thing that Disraeli did was to purchase 176,602 out of the total of 400,000 shares of the Suez Canal Company. This Company, of which the shares were held by French-

men and by the Khedive Ismail of Egypt, had constructed the Suez Canal, in the years 1866–1869. In 1875 Disraeli heard that the Khedive was willing to sell his shares. Immediately, and on his own responsibility, with the assistance of the financial houses of Rothschild and

King Edward and Queen Alexandra in 1870

Erlanger, he purchased the Khedive's shares, for £3,976,582, on behalf of the British Government. Thus the English position on the Canal, the most important link in our Empire's communications, was secured.

The Balkan Revolts. In 1875 the Turkish Government still held countries now known as Bulgaria and Bosnia-Herzegovina, in addition to being suzerain of Rumania

and Serbia. In that year the Herzegovinans revolted against their tax-gatherers; and the usual barbarities at once ensued. In 1876 Count Andrassy, with Prince Bismarck and Prince Gortchakoff (the German and Russian Chancellors), demanded that the Porte should grant an armistice for two months to the rebels. The British Government refused to join them. From this moment it became clear that Disraeli intended to support Turkey—not in the massacres of her Christian subjects, but in maintaining her independence and her territory.

The Bulgarian Atrocities. The 'seventies' and 'eighties' were the great days of newspaper foreign correspondents: it is not too much to say that the destinies of the world seemed to be moved by their letters. On the morning of June 23, 1876, people in England who opened the *Daily News* were struck with horror at the accounts of the savagery of Turkish irregular soldiers in suppressing a rising at Batak, where 1,200 people were said to have been penned up in the church there and burned. Mr. Gladstone at once wrote a pamphlet *Bulgarian Horrors and the Question of the East.*

In this he very strongly advised the Government to join France, Germany, and Russia in their endeavour to take away the Turkish rule in Bulgaria.

He wished to see them 'One and all, bag and baggage, clear out from the province they have desolated'.

This passage may be called the beginning of the *bag and baggage policy,* which Gladstone himself only demanded for Bulgaria, but which has since meant the expulsion of the Turk altogether from Europe.

The Russo-Turkish War. The Turks would not yield;

they would not alter their ways, and meanwhile civil war and murder went on in the Balkans. The cartoons of *Punch* throughout the volume for 1877 show the shadow of war over Europe, with the Powers talking, but doing nothing. The Russian Government, however, meant to act, and on April 24, 1877, the Tsar Alexander II declared war on the Porte. Russian forces were passed through the friendly State of Rumania (vassal to Turkey though it was). The Turkish armies were wretchedly organized, but the actual leading was on the whole good. Valentine Baker, a distinguished cavalry officer who had been dismissed from the British Army, was now a Lieutenant-General in the Turkish forces, and led a division in the army which defended the Western Balkans. The war correspondents of the London newspapers were present with the Turkish forces everywhere, and no better account of the fighting between the Danube and the Balkans exists than the *Daily News* correspondence, which has since been republished.

The war was practically over by February 1878. The Russian army had been held for months in front of the town of Plevna, which Osman Pasha had made almost impregnable. Superior forces, however, and the genius of General Todleben (of Sebastopol fame) overcame Osman. The fiery General Gourko seized the Shipka Pass that opens the way through the Balkans to the plain of Philippopolis and to Adrianople; and at last the Turks capitulated. Peace was signed by the Russian Commander-in-Chief, the Grand Duke Nicholas, on March 3, 1878, at San Stefano, a village on the Sea of Marmora, near Constantinople.

The Treaty of San Stefano. The Treaty of San Stefano, between Russia and Turkey, although it never came into

operation, is one of the most important in modern history.

It created a new State out of the Turkish provinces north and south of the Balkan Mountains. This new State was called Bulgaria, and its area was to be from the Danube on the north to the Aegean on the South, and from the Albanian Mountains on the west to the Black Sea on the east. Thus a large State would have been established including practically every person who could claim to belong to the Bulgarian race in the Balkan Peninsula. It was at this point that Disraeli stepped forth on the side of Turkey.

The Congress of Berlin. The new State would have been the largest and most powerful in the Balkans ; and it would have been, naturally, under Russian protection and influence. The political power of the Russian Government would stretch across the Balkans, to Constantinople, to Egypt, to India. Disraeli meant to check this when in his last speech in the House of Commons (August 11, 1876), he said : ' Our duty at this critical moment is to preserve the Empire of England.' He was then seventy-two years old, and, active though he was, was glad to pass as Earl of Beaconsfield from the labours of the House of Commons to the serener air of the House of Lords.

He had decided in his own mind that the Treaty of San Stefano should not be carried into effect. By the Treaty of Paris in 1856, which ended the Crimean War, the Powers of Europe had guaranteed the Turkish Empire should not be divided. Beaconsfield saw that a separate Treaty between Russia and Turkey would set this aside. He therefore demanded that the Concert of Europe should reconsider and settle the Eastern

Question. The Russian Government agreed to this, and a Congress of representatives of Great Britain, Russia, Austria, Germany, Italy, and Turkey met at Berlin on June 13, 1878. The chairman or President of the Congress was Prince Bismarck, the German Chancellor. Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury (Foreign Secretary) were the British representatives. The Russian envoy was Count Schouvaloff, and the envoy of France was M. Waddington; Waddington was a French statesman and scholar who had been educated at Rugby and Trinity College, Cambridge, had rowed in the Cambridge eight, and had gained a First Class in Classics.

The object of the Congress was to settle the disputes between Russia and Turkey: but when Beaconsfield went to Berlin he already had a convention of his own signed with Russia, and another with Turkey, practically settling all the disputed questions in advance. No wonder he was considered the most prominent man at the Congress, for he had already arranged matters all his own way.

The first convention—that with Russia—was signed on May 30. Russia agreed that Bulgaria should be greatly reduced in size. Britain agreed also that Russia should get a portion of Rumania.

The Anglo-Russian Convention satisfied Russia: the Anglo-Turkish Convention (June 4, 1878) was to safeguard Turkey. Great Britain promised for the future to defend the Asiatic territories of the Sultan against Russia, and in return received from Turkey the island of Cyprus, 'to be occupied and administered by England'. This treaty remained good till October 1914, when Turkey made war on Great Britain, and

BALKAN STATES
1878-1914
English Miles
0 50 100 200
HUNGARY
BUKOVINA
MOLDOVIA
RUSSIA
Jassy
BESSARABIA
TRANSYLVANIA
Temesvar
Rother Turm P.
Vulkan P.
Tömös P.
1856-1878
Galatz
1878
AUSTRIA
BOSNIA
DALMATIA (AUSTRIA)
Belgrade
Orsova
ROUMANIA
WALLACHIA
Bucharest
DOBRUDJA
Silistria
Serajevo
Vidin
Rustchuk
1913
SERBIA
HERZEGOVINA
MONTE NEGRO
Nish
Pirot
Plevna
BULGARIA
Turnovo
Varna
Sofia
Burgas
1885
Philippopolis
1913
Cattaro
Cettinje
ADRIATIC SEA
ALBANIA
Uskub
1913
1913
Adrianople
Durazzo
Ochrida
Monastir
1913
Constantinople
OTTOMAN EMPIRE
ITALY
Brindisi
Valona
Salonica
Otranto
Janina
J. ROY
Lemnos
Corfu
Larissa
1881
AEGEAN SEA
IONIAN SEA
Levkas
GREECE
Mitylene
Smyrna
Chios
Cephalonia
Zante
PELOPONNESE
Athens
Samos
Crete
Acquisitions of Montenegro 1913
" " Roumania "
" " Bulgaria "
" " Serbia "
" " Greece "
Ceded to Bulgaria by the Treaty of London May 30th 1913, retroceded to Turkey Sept. 29th 1913.
State frontiers
Old "

consequently the guarantee of the Sultan's dominions in Asia ended and Cyprus was annexed outright.

The great *Treaty of Berlin* was signed on July 13. By this, Serbia, Montenegro, and Rumania were declared to be completely independent of Turkey. Bulgaria, with an area which extended only from the Danube to the Balkans, became a self-governing Principality (subject to Turkey) under Alexander of Battenberg; and Montenegro, for the first time, was given access to the sea, at Antivari, a small port on the Adriatic. Bosnia and Herzegovina, the two important Turkish provinces whose revolt had begun the Russo-Turkish War, were given into the charge of Austria.

All the Balkan States concerned in the Treaty of Berlin gradually increased their territory at the expense of Turkey and declared themselves to be 'Kingdoms'. The last Prince to make himself King was Nicholas of Montenegro in 1912. Although Bulgaria more than doubled its area in the next thirty-five years, its people were not satisfied, and this was the cause of Bulgaria's entry in the war against Serbia in October 1915. Austria occupied and administered Bosnia and Herzegovina with great success until 1908, when suddenly, without any reference to the Concert of Europe which had authorized her occupation, she declared them to be annexed. This was the beginning of a long series of disturbances in the Balkan Peninsula, including four wars, the devastation of several countries, and death by the sword, by disease, and starvation, of millions of people. Russia had been kept from Constantinople, and Beaconsfield was able to announce on his return from Berlin that he brought 'peace with honour'. Except Germany, every one had got something out of the Turkish Empire, though

in England no one set much store by the island of Cyprus.

Jingoism. The popularity of the Prime Minister was now at its height. The people were very happy at seeing themselves once more one of the guiding Powers of Europe. Under the influence of Beaconsfield they had been ready to go to war with Russia, and it was in the three months before the Congress of Berlin that the music-hall ditty was so popular :

We don't want to fight, but by Jingo if we do,
We've got the ships, we've got the men, we've got the money too.

§ 4. The End of the Conservative Ministry

The year 1879 was no quieter than '78. There was war with Afghanistan, war with the Zulus, and serious trouble with the Boers in South Africa. Towards the end of 1878 trade was bad, and the agricultural industry especially suffered.

In 1880, after a great 'campaign' in Midlothian, Mr. Gladstone, who was seventy-one years of age, again became Prime Minister at the head of a very strong Liberal Government.

Death of Beaconsfield. In the period between the Treaty of Berlin and the General Election of 1880, much animosity had been shown in public speeches between Beaconsfield and Gladstone. One of Mr. Punch's cartoons depicted 'Mr. Punch' as a schoolmaster reprimanding Beaconsfield and Mr. Gladstone, dressed as two schoolboys, and saying, 'What are you two boys throwing mud at each other for?' Beaconsfield was seventy-five years old, and his health, never robust, was now gone. He still took his place in the House of

Lords. At the end of the month he was confined to bed with bronchitis, and after an illness of three weeks, which was watched with the keenest interest by the whole people, he died on April 19, 1881. So ended, full of years and honour, the life of the dreaming Hebrew man of letters, who in the Congress of all the great statesmen of Europe in 1878 was admitted by Bismarck to be the ablest of all. He is buried in Hughenden Churchyard.

CHAPTER XL

INDIA UNDER THE CROWN

The Russians in Central Asia. Lord Roberts, in his *Forty-one Years in India*, has pointed out that at the beginning of the eighteenth century the English and Russian frontiers in Asia were separated by a space of 4,000 miles; by the opening of the nineteenth century this distance had been reduced to 2,000 miles, chiefly by the advance of the British frontier to include the whole of Bengal. After this, the Russians advanced more rapidly than the British, and by the middle of the century the distance between us and them had been diminished by 1,000 miles.

Between the Russian and British frontiers lay the country of Afghanistan, with its almost impassable mountain ranges, its severe climate, its poor country, and its fierce and warlike people.

It was, however, feared that Russia might buy the support of the Afghans and so reach India.

The Empire of India. The Governors-General since the Mutiny had taken no special measures to meet this danger. But when Disraeli became Prime Minister of

England, steps were taken to show the peoples of India that England was taking a real interest in their affairs. In 1875–1876 the Prince of Wales (afterwards King Edward VII) made a tour of India, which caused great

public attention. In 1876 Disraeli appointed Lord Lytton Governor-General. Lytton was the son of the statesman and man of letters, Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton, and a man of energy and imagination. On January 1, 1877, in a great Assembly at Delhi, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India.

The Second Afghan War. The Ameer of Afghanistan at this time was Sher Ali, a man who could not, unaided,

rule the wild tribes over whom he was supposed to have sway. In 1878 he refused to receive a British Mission, although he had previously received one from Russia. This act plainly showed that he intended to favour the Russians.

As this would be a source of danger to India, Lord Lytton sent three large forces against the Ameer: the Kandahar Field Force, 13,000 men, under Major-General Sir Donald Stewart; the Khyber Field Force, 16,000 men, under Major-General Sir Samuel Browne; and the Kuram Field Force, 6,700 men, under Major-General Roberts. On November 20, 1878, the Ameer was declared to be an enemy. Next day Sir Samuel Browne (whose fame is still kept green by the 'Sam Browne belts') began his advance against the Khyber, and after some hard fighting took the fortress of Jellalabad.

The Kandahar Field Force was scarcely opposed. After a difficult march of 400 miles Stewart entered Kandahar. The Kuram Field Force marched up the Kuram valley, which was 60 miles long and three to ten miles wide, enclosed on each side by splendid wooded mountains, rising to a height of 14,000 feet. The village of Kuram is 48 miles along the valley, and was reached in four days. At the end of the valley is the Peiwar Kotal, an immensely difficult wooded pass held in strength by the Afghan army. It was captured on December 1.

The Treaty of Gandamuk. The capture of the Peiwar Kotal opened the way to Kabul, which was also threatened by Stewart from Kandahar and by Browne from Jellalabad. Sher Ali looked to Russia for help, but none came. Sher Ali and the Russian Mission left Kabul and fled to Turkestan. There Sher Ali died in the following

February, and his son Yakub Khan, who had always opposed his father's policy, reigned at Kabul in his stead. A treaty was concluded at Gandamuk (May 1879) between the Ameer and the Government of India, according to which there was to be a British Resident at Kabul, and the Ameer, while otherwise independent, was to conduct his foreign relations only through the Government of India.

A TYPICAL AFGHAN

The Treaty of Gandamuk seemed to secure the peace of India. In July 1879 Cavagnari was sent to be the first British representative at Kabul.

On September 3 the British Residency was stormed by the mutinous Afghan soldiery, and Cavagnari [1] with his escort of 75 Indian soldiers was butchered.

Roberts's March to Kabul. For the second time in forty years the Afghans had shown, in the most striking way possible, that they cared nothing for the Indian Government nor for any form of law. They had therefore now to be given the lesson which should have been taught them before. By September 30 (1879) Roberts was ready to start with the Kabul Field Force (as his con-

[1] Cavagnari was an able man of French extraction: a good type of the Anglo-Indian officer in the political service. He had been made a K.C.B. for his services in negotiating the Treaty of Gandamuk.

METROPOLIT

tingent was to be called) consisting of 2,558 British and 3,867 Native Indian soldiers.

The force marched by the Kuram valley and over the Shutargardan Pass, and, after some heavy fighting, occupied Kabul on October 9. Roberts always considered this march from Kuram to Kabul to be his greatest feat: many times success seemed to hang by a hair, and had anything gone wrong, not a single man, he says, of the Kabul Field Force would have got back alive to India.

Ahmedkhel and Maiwand. Meanwhile Sir Donald Stewart's force had never evacuated Kandahar since the occupation of that town in 1878. He now, on March 30 (1880), started to march to Kabul, to join Roberts. On April 19 he fought a brilliant action against the tribesmen at Ahmedkhel.

Sir Donald Stewart reached Kabul on May 5 (1880) and took over the supreme command from Roberts.

Meanwhile Ayub Khan, a pretender to the throne of Afghanistan, had collected the tribesmen once more, and almost beleaguered Kandahar, which had been left in charge of Brigadier-General Burrows. On July 27 Burrows with his brigade, numbering 2,476 men, marched out to meet Ayub, who had 25,000, at Maiwand. The result was the complete rout of the British force: 'The remnant struggled on throughout the night to Kandahar, where the first of the fugitives arrived early on the morning of the 28th. Brigadier-General Burrows, who had two horses shot under him during the engagement, was amongst the last to reach Kandahar' (Roberts, *Forty-one Years in India*).

The March from Kabul to Kandahar. The British defeat at Maiwand by the tribesmen set Afghanistan in

flame again. In India and the wild countries beyond its borders, a few Englishmen were governing millions of Orientals, who obeyed because the Englishmen were strong and were believed to be strong. On this belief in England's power to rule, the existence of peace throughout the length and breadth of India depends.

For the second time in their history the Afghans had routed and almost annihilated a British army. At all costs they must be shown, and shown swiftly, that England was all powerful. A great and daring feat of arms must be accomplished, which would at once impress and punish them, and at the same time relieve the besieged garrison of Kandahar.

As soon as the Indian Government heard at Simla of the disaster of Maiwand they ordered Roberts to take a column right through the wild, disaffected portion of Afghanistan, from Kabul to Kandahar.

At 6 a.m. on August 11 (1880) the Kandahar Field Force, as Roberts's division was to be called, started from Kabul on its march of 313 miles ; no attempt was to be made to establish a line of communication.

It disappeared from view on August 11, and nothing more was heard of it till it reappeared nearly three weeks later at Kandahar. The number of the Force was 9,986 men of all ranks (three brigades of infantry and one of cavalry) and 189 guns : in addition there were 8,000 native followers, used for carrying baggage and for looking after the horses. There were 2,300 horses and gun-mules, and 8,000 baggage-animals—ponies, mules, donkeys, and camels. The supplies were very carefully calculated, as no extra weight could be carried. Only sufficient flour for five days was taken, and the commissariat officers had to procure all that was necessary

over and above this from the villages in the bare country through which the division marched.

Payment was made to the natives for all corn, fruit, vegetables, or other kinds of food required by the army, and also for any damage done to their property.

The march was a complete success.

Ghazni was reached on the 15th, the place which forty-one years before the commander's father, General Sir Abraham Roberts, had captured in the First Afghan War. The Force marched steadily onward. On the 27th Roberts fell ill of fever, and had to be carried in a doolie, 'a most ignominious mode of conveyance' (he says) 'for a general on service.' On the morning of August 31 the Force marched into Kandahar, unopposed.

The garrison had been in a bad state, thoroughly depressed and disheartened, and no one knows what might have happened if relief had not come. There were only 1,000 British and 3,000 native soldiers fit for fighting.

Roberts had no idea of resting till he had finished his work. On September 1, the day after reaching Kandahar, he moved his troops out to assault the forces of Ayub Khan. The main Afghan position was stormed, and the whole army routed. Ayub Khan's camp and artillery were captured, including two British guns which had been taken at Maiwand.

Britain and Afghanistan. The Afghan War was now at an end. British troops left the country. Another ruler, Abdurrahman, was placed on the throne. The new Amir was a man of great force of character, a born ruler of the tribesmen. He gradually reduced the country to order, being given the necessary supplies of money and rifles by the Indian Government.

CHAPTER XLI

THE BRITISH IN AFRICA

§ 1. South Africa to the Battle of Majuba Hill

Early History. The Union of South Africa is the third largest of the five self-governing Dominions of the British Empire. Canada has about 3½ million square miles, Australia about 3 million, South Africa about ¾ of a million. Although the Cape of Good Hope was discovered in 1486, it was for long nothing more than a half-way house, a port of call, for vessels sailing to India. The mariners stopped there to take in water and green vegetables, and then passed on to India and the gorgeous East.

Thus Africa continued for a hundred and fifty years to be the 'Dark Continent', closed and unknown. When the Dutch began to settle there in the seventeenth century, they clung to the coasts, and only had trading-stations. Very gradually they 'trekked' inland; when in 1795 Admiral Elphinstone and General Craig took possession of the Colony, it numbered only about 40,000 white inhabitants.

Geography. Yet South Africa is suited to the life of white men more even than Canada or Australia. Its climate is sunny, dry, and bracing: there are no extremes of temperature; and every one who has visited that magnificent country, ridden on its rolling upland plains, gazed through the pure air at its mountains, will keep ever green in his memory its peculiar charm.

The country consists of coast and plateaux. Behind Table Bay are mountains; and thence the Great Karroo

stretches northwards, a magnificent prairie country at a height of 2,000 to 3,000 feet above sea-level: after more mountains comes the Upper Karroo, at a height of 3,000 to 4,000 feet. The great table-land is continued across the Orange River, across the Vaal, and away into Central Africa.

The Early British Period. After the Napoleonic Wars South Africa had a long period of quiet development under British rule. The Irish were little represented, but Scotsmen and Englishmen came in fairly large numbers, for instance, 5,000 in the years 1821–1822. The colony was strongly Protestant. In 1795 the London Missionary Society was founded, and actively taught the knowledge of the Gospel in South Africa, supported by all Protestant Churches in England.

Thus South Africa, although it has two white peoples like Canada, has, unlike Canada, no trouble from differences of religion. It is the 'native problem' that causes most anxiety to thinking men in South Africa.

The Kaffir Wars. The Kaffir clans in Cape Colony resisted the intruders, and a Kaffir War took place in 1811–1812. At the close of this campaign the English commander, Colonel Graham, made a line of frontier-posts, and the chief became the city of Grahamstown. As the colonists advanced over the Karroo, other Kaffir Wars took place. In 1834 the British Governor at the Cape, Sir Benjamin D'Urban (one of Wellington's Peninsular officers), founded Durban, which became the seaport of Natal. The Kaffirs almost immediately came against the new settlements, and murdered every one they found. The raid of 1834 was driven back largely through the efforts of another Peninsular veteran, Sir Harry Smith. As always in South African history till

1899, the number of British forces engaged was to be counted only in hundreds. There was another Kaffir War in 1846 and again in 1850.

The land was too vast to be garrisoned by British regular troops, and the colonists themselves were too scattered to make a strong defence. The last Kaffir War was in 1877, which was successfully dealt with by Sir Bartle Frere.

The Boer Republics. In 1836 the great Treks began. The change from Dutch to British government was difficult. The Netherlands East India Company, which held the Colony before the British occupation, had interested itself only in trading, and had left the settlers alone. The British system of government was different. Many of the old Dutch settlers remained in the Colony ; but others resented the use of the British language and British law, and especially the interference of the British Governors in the quarrels between Dutchmen and natives.

Accordingly, in 1836, Boer farmers began to cross the Orange River (the northern limit of Cape Colony) to make new homes in the unoccupied territory, braving starvation and death by violence, rather than submit to any loss of freedom under British rule. They took their women and children with them, and gradually spread over the lands known later as Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal. They built their timber homes, with the picturesque ' stoep ' or veranda, they cultivated a little maize and wheat, kept some oxen and sheep, and when threatened by Matabele or Zulu rode out with their comrades in ' commando ', to save their women and children from mutilation, and to smite the heathen to the ground.

Natal. The first province to get some form of order from the trekkers was Natal, of which the chief settlement was called Pietermaritzburg, from two of the leading trekkers, Piet Retief and Gerrit Maritz. The 'burghers', as the Dutch came to be called, met occasionally in a sort of Parliament or 'volksraad', and they grouped themselves in commandoes for their native wars. Natal, however, was claimed as British territory, and in 1842, after a little armed resistance, the Natal Boers submitted to the Queen's Government.

Orange Free State. When Natal became a British Colony, most of the Dutch who had come into it to get away from the British flag went to their kinsmen who lived between the Orange River and the Vaal. In 1847 Sir Harry Smith declared the country between the Orange River and the Vaal to be British also. He held that the Boers who had left Cape Colony to settle on other land were still British subjects: they might own the land where they settled, but the British sovereignty went with them. A British Resident was placed at Bloemfontein, but the Boers, who for about ten years had carried on a government of their own, took up arms to defend it under Commandant Pretorius. Sir Harry Smith at once came north to put down the rebellion, and did not allow himself to be surprised and beaten. In a scattered fight of the usual kind he dispersed the burghers at Boomplatz, south-west of Bloemfontein (August 29, 1848).

The British rule was established; and, relying on this, English colonists began to settle on the land. The country was known as the Orange River Sovereignty. The Boers, however, remained discontented and the British Government disliked having always to keep

a garrison in the country. On February 23, 1854, the Convention of Bloemfontein was made, withdrawing the British authority and acknowledging the complete independence of the Orange Free State.

The Transvaal. Two years earlier the Sand River Convention had recognized another Dutch State, the Transvaal. The Boers who had trekked beyond the

THE GREAT TREK NORTH. From an old water-colour

Vaal River had gone on to the high, almost boundless veldt, a country nearly as big as France. The British Government had never declared its sovereignty over this area. The Transvaal Dutch were anxious to be independent and to govern themselves, and the British Government recognized their independence. The emigrant farmers beyond the Vaal had the right to manage their own affairs without interference from the Queen's Government. A condition was made that the 'emigrant farmers' should not practise nor permit slavery.

The Great Trek, or Treks, as the movement of Dutch settlers beyond the Orange River and Vaal is called, is

the turning-point in South African history. There is something romantic, picturesque, heroic, about these farmers, desiring only freedom to live their own lives in their own way, inspanning their oxen and trekking away over the endless veldt, with their women and children, their Bibles and their rifles, determined to make themselves a home. The result was the formation of two independent States in South Africa, two States in which the Government was entirely Dutch. Thus the differences between the British and Dutch races were much more clearly marked than when they all lived under the same flag.

The Zulu Wars. The Zulus were a small tribe of the large Bantu race which is found all over South Africa from the Cape to the Zambezi. The Bantus were savages, they cultivated the soil, tended oxen, sheep, and goats, and were able to work in metal.

The Zulu tribe of the Bantu race lives in the country that lies along the coast to the north of the Tugela River and stretches inland to the Lebombo Mountains. This country is about 160 miles long and 70 to 100 miles wide. At the end of the eighteenth century the Zulus were quite a small tribe, but in the course of the nineteenth century, under a succession of able chiefs, who imitated the discipline of English troops, they became an exceedingly powerful tribe. Their greatest leader was Chaka, who before he died in 1828 had conquered a vast area of land. In 1877 the Zulus were ruled by a chief called Cetewayo, who had a standing army of 40,000 men. In this year the British Government had quietly annexed the Transvaal, because it was unable to govern itself and to resist the incessant raids of the Zulus. Soon afterwards the British High Commissioner

in South Africa, Sir Bartle Frere, ordered Cetewayo to disband his regiments, and to permit the young Zulus to settle on the land in peace (December 11, 1878). After allowing one month for reply from Cetewayo, and receiving no answer, Frere ordered the British troops to advance into Zululand.

In the middle of January (1879) Lord Chelmsford, with the main column of the British forces, crossed the Tugela, and on January 20 encamped at Isandlwana, one of the few hills of the flat and pleasant country of Zululand. On the 22nd, leaving about half his men—numbering only 800—to hold the camp, he himself went forward with the rest to reconnoitre the way towards Cetewayo's kraal Ulundi. While he was away the Zulus came up and attacked Isandlwana. The commander of the camp led his men out to meet them. Only forty British soldiers survived the fight.

The victorious Zulus passed on to the Tugela, crossed it, and would have spread desolation over the colony but for the heroism of the small British force which, posted on the Natal side of the river, held Rorke's Drift. Here ninety-eight men, under Lieutenants Chard and Bromhead, kept three thousand Zulus at bay throughout a whole afternoon and night, until Lord Chelmsford's returning column relieved them.

Lord Chelmsford finally defeated the Zulus at Ulundi itself. A sad event marked the closing weeks of the campaign; the Prince Imperial, the only son of Napoleon III and the Empress Eugénie, had been killed in a skirmish on June 1. He had been trained at Woolwich and had volunteered for active service when the Zulu War broke out.

Cetewayo was left with most of his former dominions

to rule over. He died in 1884. In 1887 the whole of Zululand was annexed to Natal.

Annexation of the Transvaal. Since the Sand River Convention of 1852, the Transvaal Republic had not prospered. Excluding women and children, there were only 8,000 able-bodied Boers in that territory nearly as large as France. The Boers would not pay taxes to their own Government; the Government could not preserve order within its own frontiers; nor could it defend its territories from the Zulus.

In 1876 the British Government sent Sir Theophilus Shepstone to inquire into the state of things in the Transvaal. Shepstone had been brought up in South Africa [1] and knew the people and the country as well as any one. In January (1877) he went up from Pietermaritzburg to Pretoria, with an escort of only twenty-five men. After a stay of nearly three months at Pretoria, and after making most careful inquiries, he solemnly proclaimed, in Church Square, Pretoria, on April 12, 1877, that the Transvaal was henceforth British territory. A promise was also made that the Transvaal would have a Government of its own, as soon as circumstances permitted. The Vice-President, however, a very shrewd and strong-willed farmer called Paul Kruger, strongly protested.

The First Boer War. On December 16, 1880, the Boers, under the leadership of Paul Kruger, Andries Pretorius, and Piet Joubert, proclaimed their independence.

The war which followed was very short, and was suddenly broken off by the British Government after

[1] His father emigrated to South Africa when his son was two years old.

four disasters, in which only a few hundred troops were engaged. The strength of the Empire was never for a moment exerted in the struggle.

The first disaster occurred on December 20 (1880). A detachment of two hundred and forty men of the 94th regiment had been ordered to march in, from Lydenburg, to head-quarters in Pretoria. They were cut off by Joubert at Bronker's Spruit (Bronkhorst Spruit), forty miles north of Pretoria. Within about fifteen minutes one hundred and fifty-seven of the troops were dead or wounded ; the survivors were taken prisoners.

The changes of status of the Transvaal shown by its stamps

The next three disasters occurred in rapid succession. In January Major-General Sir George Colley, the Commander-in-Chief in South Africa, with about 1,400 men, advanced against the Boer insurgents. Commander Piet Joubert, with some few thousand Boers, held Laing's Nek, a pass where the Buffalo River breaks through the Drakensberg Mountains, the boundary between the Transvaal and Natal.

On January 28 Colley tried to force the passage of Laing's Nek. Although his troops fought their way to the top, they could not hold it, and had to retire with the loss of one hundred and ninety men.

On February 7 (1881) the General tried to dislodge the

Boers who had come down to the Ingogo River (a tributary of the Buffalo), but failed, losing one hundred and sixty men.

On the 26th of February Colley made his great effort, a night march which was to end with the ascent and occupation of Majuba Hill. This was a steep, flat-topped hill, rising about 2,000 feet above Laing's Nek and commanding the pass. The operation was at first successful, and when dawn broke the Boers on Laing's Nek saw the British bayonets glistening in the sun on the hill above them. There were six hundred British soldiers, with Colley, on the top.

Joubert, though surprised, took in the situation at a glance. Realizing that he must either take Majuba Hill, or abandon Laing's Nek, he chose the bolder course. His men worked their way to the summit—the British, owing to the convex slope, being unable to see them most of the time—and then fought their way in extended order along the top. General Colley was shot dead while attempting to rally his men. The rest were all killed or captured.

The defeat of Majuba could easily have been repaired. Sir Evelyn Wood, in Natal, had five times as many forces as Colley, and to make things doubly sure Mr. Gladstone's Government sent General Sir Frederick Roberts from India with an expeditionary force. Yet between the time of Roberts's departure from India and his arrival at Capetown the Government had changed its mind, and Sir Evelyn Wood, acting under instructions, had concluded a treaty with the Boers on March 23 (1881). They were to be given complete self-government under the authority of the British Crown. Mr. Gladstone was convinced by the Majuba campaign that the

Boers really desired independence; and having made up his mind to grant their request, he did not think it right to shed blood by defeating them first in the field merely to show the power of British arms.[1]

§ 2. Egypt

The Egyptian Question. Egypt was a Turkish province which had become practically independent under its governor (Khedive) Mehemet Ali in 1841. Mehemet Ali was an able man, but his descendants could not govern, and they could not forbear wasting money. They borrowed enormous sums in Europe—chiefly in England and France.

In 1876 the Khedive Ismail could not pay his debts, nor even the necessary expenses of government; so Great Britain and France arranged with him that two officials—one French and one British—should be appointed to put his accounts in order; the English official was to see that the revenue was properly collected, and the French official to see that it was properly spent. The first British Commissioner thus appointed was Evelyn Baring, a captain in the Royal Engineers. The Khedives' misgovernment was so great that in 1870 Ismail was deposed by the Sultan of Turkey, Abdul Hamid. His son Tewfik, warned by the example of his father, came to rely more and more on the *Dual Control* of France and Great Britain. A national party, however,

[1] It should also be noticed that on February 21 General Colley had transmitted to Kruger an offer of the British Government, that if the Boers would disband their forces a Commission would be appointed to consider their grievances. A reply was required by Colley within 48 hours. Unfortunately, Kruger did not receive the letter till February 28 (the day after Majuba), when he at once wrote to the British Government accepting the offer.

was formed to oppose this foreign influence, and under Arabi Pasha, a colonel in the native Egyptian army, it broke out into rebellion against Tewfik. On June 11, 1882, Arabi's fanatics descended upon Alexandria and murdered about fifty Europeans. The British fleet was promptly sent to bombard the rebels in Alexandria into surrender. It was in this action that Lord Charles Beresford, an Irish lieutenant in command of the gunboat *Condor*, first distinguished himself.

The British Occupation. Egypt was falling straight into anarchy; the Europeans could save themselves by leaving the country, as indeed they did, for 14,000 departed; but the peaceful native population was the first to suffer. Great Britain proposed that France and Italy should join her in restoring order in Egypt. France and Italy refused, so the British Government by itself sent a small army to Egypt under the command of General Sir Garnet Wolseley. He defeated Arabi at Tel-el-Kebir on September 13, 1882. The firebrand Egyptian colonel was sent into exile at Ceylon, where he lived in modest comfort till 1909, when the British Government allowed him to return in his old age to Egypt. General Wolseley's Army of Occupation restored Tewfik to power. Meanwhile, the British army remained to keep order, and, as a matter of fact, it has never been able to give up the control.

England tried hard to get rid of the responsibility for an unhappy country. In June 1882 a meeting of ambassadors of the Powers took place at Therapia, on the Bosphorus, at the residence of the English ambassador. But all the other Powers except England hung back from taking action; so that England was left alone to keep order in Egypt.

In 1884 Mr. Baring, who became famous later as Lord Cromer, was made Consul-General in Egypt; year by year he acquired more power and influence, and the country, which had been bankrupt and miserable, became quiet, orderly, and flourishing. Railways and irrigation works were constructed; taxation was lightened and equalized; the land-holdings of the peasants were marked out and settled; Egypt became a model of good administration, arousing the admiration of every traveller who went there.

In 1887 Britain offered to withdraw her troops from Egypt at the end of three years with the right of *temporary* re-entry if the internal condition of the country should require this. But the Sultan of Turkey would not agree. So England, being free to act as she pleased, chose to remain. The government remained in the hands of the Khedive and his native ministers, but to each department of the State an English adviser was attached.

Lord Cromer retired from his post in Egypt in 1909 and was succeeded by Field-Marshal Earl Kitchener, who, among other things, carried out a most beneficial land-reform, by which a larger number of peasants than ever before were enabled to become small land-owners.

The Sudan. The Sudan was a distant southern province of Egypt, watered by the upper Nile, and inhabited by a peasantry like that of Egypt, docile, peaceful, and given up to the cultivation of the land. The Egyptians misgoverned this country very badly, for they had no good native officials to send to those distant parts. In 1876, however, the Khedive Ismail appointed a British officer to be Governor, Charles Gordon, of the Royal Engineers, who remained in the

MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Damietta
ALEXANDRIA
Port Said
Tel-el-Kebir
CAIRO
Suez
Medina
Beni-Suef
Feshn
Minia
Assiut
Tahta
Akhmim
Qena
EGYPT
Assuan
Cataract 1
Wady Halfa
Cataract 2
NUBIAN DESERT
Cataract 3
Abu Hammed
Cataract 4
Cataract 5
Berber
ANGLO-
EGYPTIAN SUDAN
Abu Klea
Omdurman
Cataract 6
KHARTUM
F.W.W.
EGYPT
and the
RED SEA
Railways
Battles
English Miles
0 20 40 60 80 100 150 200
RED SEA
HEJAZ
Suākin
El-Tebo
ERITREA

Sudan till 1879, after which the Egyptians, left to themselves, again misgoverned the Sudan.

Against this misrule, a Mohammedan fanatic, calling himself the Mahdi or Messiah, raised a revolt, and soon conquered a large part of the country. But his rule was even more terrible to the peasants than had been that of Ismail. In 1883 the Egyptian Government sent a British officer who was in their employ, Hicks Pasha, with a force of Egyptian soldiers to the Sudan. It was annihilated by the Mahdi in the desert, 30 miles south of El Obeid, and Hicks himself was killed. Next year the Khedive asked Gordon to come back as Governor-General of what was left of the Sudan ; and Gordon, who thought it was his duty to go, went to Khartum with the approval of Mr. Gladstone's Government.

Gordon's Appointment. Great disputes have arisen over the responsibility for Gordon's appointment. He was actually sent out to the Sudan with the sole purpose of getting the Egyptian soldiers out of it. All the chief officials in Egypt reported in favour of evacuation ; the British Government had no responsibility in the Sudan ; and Mr. Gladstone had not the slightest intention of employing the British army there.

Gordon had attended a meeting of British Ministers, along with Lord Wolseley, at the War office, in January 1884. He had been distinctly told his duties and had agreed. The interview was as follows :

'Lord Wolseley came to Gordon (who was waiting outside the Minister's room), and said : Government are determined to evacuate the Sudan. Will you go and do it? *I said :* Yes. *He said :* Go in. *I went in and saw them. They said :* Did Wolseley tell you our orders ? *I said :* Yes. *I said :* You will not guarantee future

government of the Sudan, and you wish me to go up and evacuate now. *They said:* Yes, *and it was over and I left at* 8 *p.m. for Calais.* Lord Granville, the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, took Gordon's ticket at the station, Lord Wolseley carried the General's bag, and the Duke of Cambridge (Commander-in-Chief) held open the carriage-door. Thus General Gordon went off on the journey from which he was never to return.'[1]

General Gordon was a man of a noble, unselfish character. He was a first-class soldier, a good ruler, and thoroughly honourable. Having arrived at Khartum on February 18, 1884, with the distinct purpose of bringing away the Egyptian garrisons he resolved that the Sudan must remain under Egyptian government. He could not bear the idea of leaving the scattered peasantry of the Sudan to be plundered, oppressed, and made slaves of, by the Mahdi and his fierce Dervish tribes from the south.

So he remained at Khartum month after month. The outlying posts, which were held by small garrisons of Egyptian troops, were one by one cut off, as the Mahdi advanced. No attempt at a general evacuation was made.

Meanwhile the British people watched anxiously this soldier, true to what he thought his duty, of holding on in Khartum while the savage forces of maddened fanatics drew round him. Every boy in the land knew about 'Chinese Gordon' and the 'Ever Victorious Army' which had put down the Taiping Rebellion in China:[2] they knew the cool soldier who went into the thick of a fight with only a light cane in his hand, and

[1] Morley, *Life of Gladstone*, iii. 150 and note.

[2] The Chinese Government had employed Gordon as chief of their forces against the Taiping Rebellion in 1863–1864.

yet brought victory everywhere to his men. And all England admired the man, who fought all his life against cruelty and corruption, and counted his own life as nothing in the balance.

The country called on Mr. Gladstone to send a British army to save the hero. Mr. Gladstone was loath to spend more British lives, but public opinion was insistent. At the end of June Berber, 200 miles north of Khartum, fell before the Mahdi. The Government at last resolved to send an army to save Gordon. In September Lord Wolseley was sent to Egypt ; by October he had a small army, perfectly equipped and organized, at Wady Halfa, and the famous Nile campaign began.

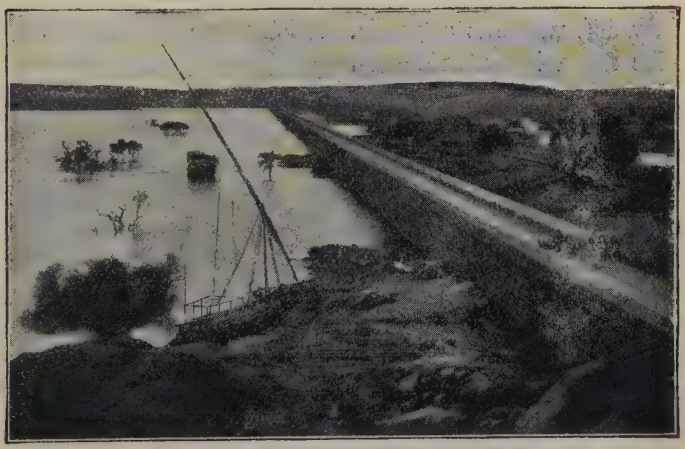
The Nile Campaign. The army was divided into two parts, the River Column under Lord Wolseley himself, and the Desert Column under Sir Herbert Stewart, an Indian officer of great brilliance, who was chosen to make the ' dash to Khartum '. Stewart won the battle of Abu Klea, but in the next action received a mortal wound.

The River Column had the longer route. Its progress was slow but sure ; the Dervishes could not stand against the rifle-fire and machine guns of Wolseley's carefully trained men. Meanwhile the Desert Column, in spite of Sir Herbert Stewart's death, had gone forward to its goal. On January 21, 1885, it was at Gubat on the Nile, 80 miles from Khartum. Two of Gordon's river steamers came down stream to meet it. The troops had to halt till the 24th, to repair the steamers and to make the country safe behind them. Then the steamers, with 26 British soldiers and 240 Sudanese troops, went on ahead.

' As the two steamers ran slowly on, a solitary voice from the river bank now and again called out to them

that Khartum was taken, and Gordon slain. Eagerly searching with their glasses, the officers perceived that the Government House was a wreck, and that no flag was flying. Gordon, in fact, had met his death two days before.' [1]

The Mahdi's forces had taken the town by assault. Gordon met his death on the steps of Government House (January 26, 1885).



THE ASSUAN DAM

The Conquest of the Sudan. For the next thirteen years the Sudan was left to the Dervishes. But Egypt, under the guidance of Sir Evelyn Baring, growing more and more prosperous, could not consent to see its former province suffer under the rule of the Mahdi. In 1898 the Egyptian Government felt strong and wealthy enough, with the help of Great Britain, to undertake the reconquest of the Sudan. A combined British and

[1] Morley, *Life of Gladstone*, iii. 166.

Egyptian force under Sir Herbert Kitchener, who then held the position of Sirdar, or Commander-in-Chief in Egypt, advanced into the country which was then under the Mahdi's successor, the equally fanatic Khalifa. General Kitchener had taken part in Wolseley's expedition in 1885. He knew the risks, and he had carefully studied every means for reconquering the Sudan. The campaign was in every way a model. Well equipped, well fed, well led, the British and Egyptian forces advanced without a check. At Omdurman, about five miles from Khartum, on September 2, 1898, the last fight took place. The Dervishes threw themselves against the Anglo-Egyptian infantry, which received them with volley fire. The enemy were driven back, and then broken up by the British cavalry. The losses to the Anglo-Egyptian force were under 500. On September 4 General Kitchener entered Khartum. The Sudan was then annexed jointly to Great Britain and Egypt, and Gordon College was founded at Khartum, to commemorate the hero who had sacrificed his life for the country, and to educate the young Sudanese.

CHAPTER XLII

GLADSTONE'S SECOND MINISTRY

Political Parties 1880 to 1914. With the retirement of Beaconsfield, and the beginning of Mr. Gladstone's Second Ministry, English politics began to change. The first thing that happened was that the Liberal party split over the question of Home Rule for Ireland. A new party under Mr. Chamberlain broke away, and, under the name of Liberal Unionist, joined with the Conserva-

tive party. All these three parties—the Liberal, the Conservative, the Liberal Unionist—claimed, as every party should, to represent the country as a whole. At the same time there was the Irish Nationalist party, who represented nothing but Ireland, and had no other interest. Finally, in the twenty years before the War of 1914, a fifth party, the Labour Party, grew powerful. The first object of this Party was to defend and advance the interests of the labouring classes, and not of the whole population, and it was in their name only that they professed to speak. But towards the end of this period the Labour Party began to be broader minded, and by allowing some of their members to accept Cabinet office showed that they meant to stand for the country as a whole. The Irish Nationalist party, on the other hand, would never allow any of its members to become members of a Government.

The Irish Party. The Irish Nationalist Party, as a separate group in the House of Commons, was founded by Isaac Butt, who died in 1879, and his place was taken by Charles Stewart Parnell, M.P. for Meath, a Protestant Irish landowner, who was in the confidence of the Clan-na-Gael, the Fenian or Irish Nationalist Club, in America.

The Irish peasants, and most of the townspeople, went on returning to Westminster the same members, pledged to vote with O'Connell, or, later, pledged to vote with Parnell. If the Member held the right views—that is to say, if he would work simply to gain self-government for Ireland, if he would follow his leader—he could hold his seat for life. The Irish Nationalists were always present, always decided, ready to cast their votes in one solid block in any way which would help the cause of self-government for Ireland.

By the year 1880 Ireland was in a bad state. A large number of the people were in debt to their landlords, although the rents were not high. The peasantry as a whole had lost all sense of justice and restraint. Assassinations were frequent. Landlords and land-stewards were shot and stabbed, but it was found impossible to bring the murderers to justice. Land often came into the market through the eviction of a peasant who was owing rent. A new tenant might take the holding; but one night masked men would break into his house and shoot him and his whole family. Even the helpless cattle were maimed in a very cruel manner.

The Land League. In 1879 Michael Davitt founded a society called the Land League. The object of the League was to reduce rents and to make it easier for people to own their land.

There was no harm in using fair means to gain their object, but many of its members were 'moonlighters' and the League itself encouraged boycotting.

Parnell, the President of the League, in a meeting at Ennis on September 16, 1879, said, 'What are you to do to a tenant who bids for a farm from which his neighbour has been evicted?' 'Kill him, shoot him,' came from the audience. Parnell advised them to treat such a one as if he were a leper—neither speak to him, deal with him in shop, market, or fair, nor notice him in a place of worship even.

The method was first put in force against Captain Boycott, the agent for Lord Erne's estates in County Mayo, hence the name.

The tasks of the British Government. Such was the condition of affairs in Ireland when Mr. Gladstone, at

the age of seventy, began his Second Ministry. There were three things to be done by the British Government in Ireland. One was to enforce the law, to put down murder and terrorism, and to protect innocent people, rich or poor, who went about their own business. The second was to find some means of improving conditions on the land, so that it would support the people. The third was to deal with the demand for self-government.

By 1885 Lord Spencer had made the people have a greater respect for the law, and by 1906 the Land Act of Mr. Gladstone, afterwards improved by a Unionist-Conservative Government, had made it easier for the people to become owners of the land they wished to cultivate.

The Crimes. The difficulty in Ireland was that the mass of the people did not appear to wish to put a stop to the terrible deeds that took place from time to time. For instance, in September 1880 Lord Mountmorres was shot dead by the roadside at Rusheen in County Galway. The whole countryside showed active sympathy with the murder, and the dead man's family were practically driven out of the country. They were poor gentry, and were only relieved by Queen Victoria giving them rooms in Hampton Court. The murderers were never discovered.

On May 6, of the same year, a new Lord-Lieutenant (Earl Spencer) and a new Chief Secretary, Lord Frederick Cavendish, came to Dublin. After doing some business at the Castle Lord Spencer went with a small escort to the Viceregal Lodge in Phoenix Park, while Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke the Under-Secretary followed on foot. Opposite the Viceregal Lodge four men set upon Mr. Burke and stabbed him to death.

They did not apparently know the Chief Secretary; but Lord Frederick Cavendish, umbrella in hand, went to Burke's assistance, and was stabbed to death also.

Lord Spencer. Fortunately Ireland had a Lord-Lieutenant with a strong sense of duty. He went to Ireland to govern without fear or favour, and without thought of the consequences. Courteous, dignified, patient, always calm, always reasonable, he impressed even the most hostile Irish; they recognized his honesty, his unswerving purpose to do only what was right; and as always happens, when a man is perfectly fair and determined, he gained his way.

He gave up putting people in prison merely because they were suspected; but he carefully investigated every breach of the law, and with endless patience worked to get honest juries and fearless judges. The final effort came with the trial of the Invincibles, an association of murderers who had, among other things, committed the Phoenix Park murders. On February 10, 1883, four of the miscreants were identified. Lord Spencer had them tried in the Dublin Court House. The murderers were hanged, except one, named Carey, who, having turned Queen's evidence, was pardoned and sent out of the country. But the remnants of the secret gang dogged his footsteps, and he was shot on board a ship at Cape Town. The Government was thorough, however; this latest assassin was caught too, brought back to England, and hanged. By this time Ireland, though not more content, was getting peaceful. Lord Spencer's firmness, justice, and dignity had triumphed.

The Land Question. In 1881 a Special Commission reported in favour of what was known as the *three F's*—fixity of tenure, fair rent, and free sale. Most of the

Irish tenants had no fixity of tenure, but held their land on a six months or yearly agreement. For various reasons they might receive notice to quit, and therefore took little interest in the land. The rents too were higher than the Irish peasant farmer could pay. The Commission wanted to have rents fixed at what the tenant could reasonably pay; and to enable industrious peasants to become the owners of their holdings, and to sell these freely if they wished to do so.

Although a Second Land Act was passed which said that when the rent was once fixed it could not be changed for fifteen years, and further that a tenant who wished to purchase his holding could borrow three-quarters of the necessary sum from the Government, Mr. Parnell and the Land League would not agree.

CHAPTER XLIII

THE HOME RULE BILL OF 1886

Conservative Ministry. When Mr. Gladstone's Government was defeated in the House of Commons on June 8, 1885, the Queen chose Lord Salisbury to be Prime Minister. He remained in power for six months only, but during that time a Bill was passed which allowed the Irish peasant tenants to borrow from the Government the whole of the money necessary to purchase their holding instead of three-fourths as before.

The General Election was held at the end of the year, and the Liberals gained a majority of eighty-five seats over the Conservatives; but the Irish Nationalists had eighty-four seats of their own. The scales were in their hands; what would they do with these eighty-four votes?

Mr. Gladstone then again became Liberal Prime Minister, and after a deal of thought decided to settle the Irish question by granting Home Rule. If this were done the Irish Nationalists would no longer be in the House of Commons to upset the balance of parties there.

Mr. Gladstone, at the age of seventy-seven, was entering on his third term as Premier.

The Bill. On April 8 the great Bill was introduced, which Gladstone hoped would put an end to the trouble of the last five years in Ireland. The Irish were to have their own Parliament, which would consist of two Chambers: one for the peers of Ireland and large property owners and the other to be elected by the counties and towns.

There was to be a Viceroy and a Ministry. Judges were to hold their positions during good behaviour. Ireland was to contribute one-fifteenth of the common imperial charges, such as charges for defence, and for interest of debt. Ireland was to help to pay for defence, but it was not to be allowed to make laws concerning defence, armed forces, foreign and colonial affairs, the laws of trade, navigation, and legal tender. Thus the Irish Government was to be unable to make treaties or to enact customs duties. They were also forbidden to endow any religion. Finally, a very important provision of the Bill was that the Irish members—of whom under the Act of Union there were no less than 103—were to disappear from the British House of Commons altogether. They could only appear to vote in the House of Commons, if there were any question of altering the Home Rule Bill.

The Fate of the Bill. The Home Rule Bill was introduced in the House of Commons by Gladstone in a three

and a half hours' speech on April 8 (1886). The House and galleries were crowded.

There was, however, much opposition to the Bill even among Mr. Gladstone's party, many noted Liberals voting against it. The result was that Gladstone was defeated by 30 votes and consequently the Irish had to wait for Home Rule.

From this time onward the Liberal Party was divided into Liberal Home Rulers and Liberal Unionists.

CHAPTER XLIV

TORY-DEMOCRACY

Lord Salisbury's Government. The chief members of the Government, besides Lord Salisbury himself, were Sir Michael Hicks Beach, who became Chief Secretary for Ireland, and Lord Randolph Churchill, who became Chancellor of the Exchequer and Leader of the House of Commons, at the age of thirty-seven. Next year (1887) Hicks Beach had to resign from the Government owing to his eyesight ; his place was taken by Lord Salisbury's nephew, Mr. Arthur Balfour.

Lord Randolph Churchill. The two great historic parties of England are the Conservatives and Liberals ; but within these great parties there are those who have what is called 'Radical' opinions. Lord Randolph, himself an aristocrat (a son of the Duke of Marlborough), had all the gifts that make one popular with the multitude. Brilliant, fiery speeches, ready, witty replies distinguished all his public appearances. He knew the wants of the ordinary man, and hit off in three words what every one was feeling but could not say. The

multitude likes to be carried away on a flood of words which explains clearly its own doubtful ideas. This is what Lord Randolph could do, and consequently he became an idol of the people, and the Conservatives became the popular party.

Arthur James Balfour. Mr. Balfour was a man who never pushed himself forward. Through the influence of his family (his mother was a daughter of the second Marquis of Salisbury) he was given an early opportunity of making his mark in public life; he took the opportunity, and, without apparent effort or ambition, was found to be necessary to the nation's active life for the next forty years. Thus in 1917 it could be said of Mr. Balfour that he had 'held all the highest positions in the state, and always with distinction'. His power lay in a manner of great charm, a perfect command of temper, a serene and unclouded mind, and a keen, critical intellect. No one could see a point in an argument so quickly, and express it so exactly and clearly.

It was to Arthur Balfour in 1887 that the government of Ireland was entrusted.

Lord Randolph, Leader and Chancellor of the Exchequer. People felt that to make this young man Leader of the House was something of an experiment. '"*How long will your leadership last?*" asked a Liberal friend. "*Six months,*" replied Lord Randolph gaily. "*And after that?*"—"*Westminster Abbey.*"' Lord Randolph was not far wrong in this reply.

As Leader of the House Lord Randolph was keen, energetic, reasonable, and courteous, and throughout the first session of the Conservative Government he won golden opinions. As Chancellor of the Exchequer he was, for a time, equally successful.

Though careless of money in private life, Lord Randolph was careful to see that public money was not wasted.

During his period of Office he tried to introduce the principles of free trade, but failed. He hoped to reduce the duty on tea and tobacco, and to lower the income tax from 8*d*. to 5*d*.

After his failure to do this Lord Randolph Churchill resigned. He lived for nine years more, in bad health, spending part of his time travelling in South Africa. His last public action was in opposing the Home Rule Bill of 1893. He died on January 24, 1895, and was buried at Bladon, near Woodstock, in Oxfordshire.

Consols Conversion (1888). Lord Randolph Churchill was succeeded as Chancellor of the Exchequer by Mr. Goschen ; Mr. W. H. Smith, the founder of the well-known firm of booksellers, then became leader of the House of Commons, and remained so till his death in 1891. He was succeeded by Mr. Arthur Balfour.

Ireland. Ireland was still in a very unsettled state. In consequence of this Mr. Balfour brought in a Bill, known as the Crimes Act. This gave the Lord-Lieutenant much greater power over those districts which gave trouble.

The Land League had given place to a new National League which had been set up by Mr. Parnell.

Mr. Balfour, however, was firm, and supported those who had to see the law carried out.

During the next five years Ireland was better ordered than it had been for many years : but it was still calling for settlement of the land problem and for Home Rule. The Conservatives hoped that by making the small tenants in Ireland into peasant proprietors, they would

grow to be as pleased with their Union with England as the Scots were with theirs.

In 1887, while the Crimes Bill was being passed through the Commons, *The Times* newspaper published a letter, supposed to be signed by Parnell, which approved of the Phoenix Park murders.

Parnell denied writing the letter, but people generally looked upon him as guilty of doing so.

In 1888 more of such letters, in support of crime and said to have been written by Parnell, were published.

The Government decided to appoint a Parnell Commission to find out the truth of *The Times* statements. In the course of the investigations *The Times* admitted that the famous 'Parnell' letters had been purchased by them from an Irishman of very doubtful reputation, called Richard Pigott, who admitted that they were forgeries. The wretched man fled to Madrid, and, finding that the law still hung over him there, killed himself.

The end of Parnell. In November 1890 a gentleman who had been one of Parnell's own friends brought a suit in the Divorce Court against his wife and Parnell. There was no defence, and the divorce was granted. Parnell's character was ruined in the public mind, and he was deposed from his leadership of the Irish National Party in the same year (1890).

He died at Brighton in the following year at the age of forty-five.

Heligoland. Lord Salisbury wished to be friendly with Germany, and the opportunity for showing this came when the European Powers turned their attention to the unoccupied and uncivilized regions of Africa.

The Triple Alliance between Germany, Austria, and

Italy promised to ensure peace between these countries, which in previous years had been struggling one against another. It was not foreseen that they might, at some future date, use it against France, Russia, and England.

The division of the Dark Continent into colonies and districts naturally gave rise to some disagreements between the Powers. In East Africa, British and German interests clashed, particularly in Uganda and in the island of Zanzibar. To avoid such difficulties Lord Salisbury made an arrangement which at the time was considered to be very favourable to England. By a treaty made on July 1, 1890, and submitted to the Houses of Parliament, the British Government ceded to Germany the island of Heligoland, and in return received from Germany a recognition of a British Protectorate in Zanzibar and the adjacent territory.

Lord Salisbury thought Great Britain could afford to give up Heligoland, and that to do so would show Germany that we were sincerely friendly. He would probably have done better not to have done so.

CHAPTER XLV

HOME RULE AGAIN

Mr. Gladstone's Fourth Premiership. The 1886 Parliament was dissolved by Proclamation on June 28th, 1892. In the general election which followed there were elected 315 members against Home Rule. There were only 274 Liberals, but with them there could be reckoned, for support in a Home Rule Bill, 80 Irish Nationalists. It was, therefore, quite clear that the people of Great Britain had decided against Home Rule.

But the Liberals and Irish Nationalists together gave Mr. Gladstone a majority of 39, and he resolved to accept office with the Nationalist support, and to introduce another Home Rule Bill. 'He was at the mercy of the Irish vote,' but it was not in order to gain their support that he brought in the Bill.

The Second Home Rule Bill. On February 13, 1893, the Second Home Rule Bill was introduced in the House of Commons. In the main it was the same as the first Home Rule Bill, except for one important point—Irish representatives (80 instead of 103 as under the Act of Union) were to remain at Westminster, as full members of Parliament for all purposes. The opposition of the Conservatives and Liberal Unionists to the Bill was keen and tireless. Mr. Balfour was the Conservative leader in the House.

The progress of the Bill was so slow that Mr. Gladstone proposed that a time-limit should be fixed when debate must cease and when voting on the particular section of the Bill under discussion should take place. This measure, called the *Gag*, was carried, through the Irish vote, by a majority of 34.

In the third reading the Home Rule Bill was carried by a majority of 34.

When the Bill went up to the Lords, they rejected it by 419 votes against 41 (September 8, 1893). Excitement rose high throughout the country, but no one could deny that the Lords had used their power wisely. Mr. Gladstone remained in office for five more months and then resigned (March 3, 1894), feeling that there was no more work he could do. The Earl of Rosebery became Prime Minister in his stead.

The End. Mr. Gladstone now at 85 was to have

leisure for the first time in his life. His sight was failing, his wonderful vitality was on the ebb. His last days were spent at Hawarden where he died on May 19, 1898. aged 89.

Lord Rosebery's Government did not last long. It is remembered now only for the new scale of death-duties it passed.

On the death of any one leaving money or property, the heirs are called upon to pay a percentage to the Government. This, in some cases, amounts to 8 per cent.

The Queen asked Lord Salisbury to form a Government to succeed Lord Rosebery's. The Conservatives then remained in power for the next ten years.

CHAPTER XLVI

AFRICA, TO THE UNION

§ 1. The Outbreak of the Second Boer War

The Partition of Africa. In 1880 Africa was still the Dark Continent, mysterious and wonderful, and a little terrifying. Its vast extent, its undeveloped riches, attracted the nations of Western Europe, looking out for new fields for their commerce. It was the last great area of the world which was still open for the competition of the European States. In the south, Cape Colony, Natal, the Boer Republics, were already settled; in the extreme north, Algeria had come under France, and Egypt, to a certain extent, under Britain; but between the north and south were hundreds of thousands of square miles of unallotted territory. The years 1881 to 1891 were the period of the partition of Africa. At the

end of that period the map of Africa showed broad areas, each under the care of a civilized State. That this was accomplished without a conflict between the competing States was largely due to Lord Salisbury.

Germany in Africa. Till 1871 the States of Germany were separate, independent, and entirely bounded in their interest by European affairs. In 1871 they became united in one powerful land empire, and began to be very active in commerce. The Imperial Government looked around for colonies, but the only unoccupied spaces which it could find were in Africa.

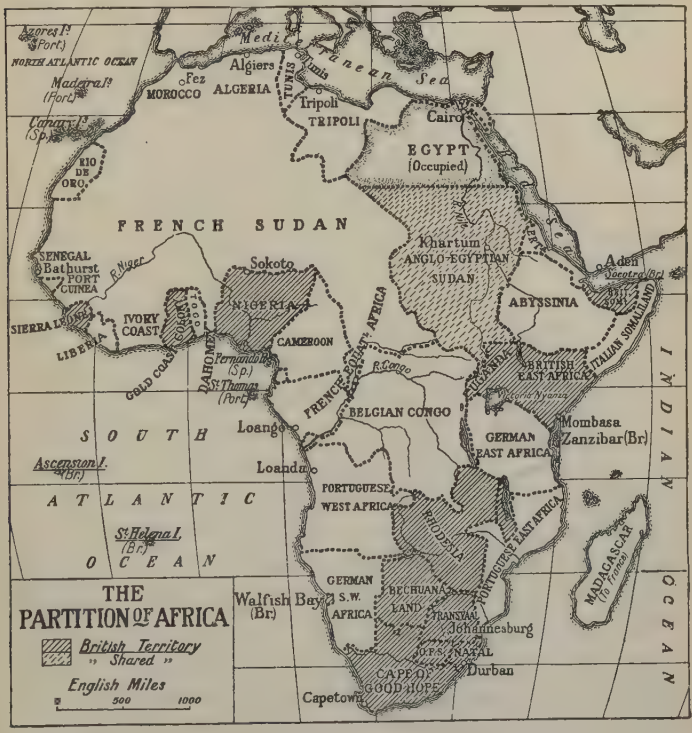
A military empire in Africa, with hordes of disciplined barbarians, led by highly trained German officers, equipped with the most powerful modern weapons of destruction, would have made a military European State like Germany tremendously strong.

In 1884 a beginning was made with a German colonial empire by the proclamation of the Kaiser's authority over Damaraland (German South-West Africa). Walfish Bay, the only really good harbour on the south-west coast, belonged to Britain.

In 1884 also the Germans declared themselves to be in occupation of the Cameroon and Togoland, and the German power might have spread farther had not the private enterprise of an Englishman secured Nigeria for England. This was Sir George Goldie, who in 1887 induced Lord Salisbury to grant a Charter to the Royal Niger Company.

On the other side of Africa the Germans had also acquired great possessions. In 1885 an explorer, Dr. Karl Peters, representing the German Imperial African Company, had gained a large tract of territory opposite Zanzibar. By 1889 the Germans had acquired an

empire in Africa bigger than their empire in Europe, and they had a chance of almost doubling it by extending southwards to the borders of the Transvaal: but the



diplomacy of Lord Salisbury and the genius of Cecil Rhodes forestalled them.

The Rules of the Game. Lord Salisbury made at least two notable achievements with regard to South Africa. One was to get the Powers to agree that before a country could claim any part of Africa, its people must really have occupied it. The second was that any State

occupying the coast-line, the unoccupied country (known as the 'hinterland') behind the coast went with it.

The treaty of 1890, giving Heligoland to Germany, settled the question of Zanzibar (which was recognized by the German Government as a British Protectorate), and also the question of Uganda and Witu (British East Africa), which were assigned to Great Britain.

New British Dominions. In 1875 the possession of the territory round the spacious Delagoa Bay was disputed by Great Britain and Portugal, and Marshal MacMahon, the President of the French Republic, was asked to decide. He gave Delagoa Bay to Portugal (which was not in occupation at the time), on the ground of ancient historical claims. Sir William Mackinnon leased from the Sultan of Zanzibar in 1887 the territory now known as British East Africa. Mackinnon was a merchant and also a strong supporter of missionaries. British East Africa, under his East African Company, became a great home both of missionaries and traders. The Company itself, however, did not succeed, and in 1895 it handed the territory and people over to the Imperial Government.

The partition of Africa was now nearly complete. In 1884 Bechuanaland had been occupied by Great Britain. Bechuanaland was being raided by filibusters from the Transvaal, whom President Kruger could not keep in control; and German agents were said to have their eyes fixed upon it. It is a great country, stretching northwards for 800 miles from the Orange River to the Zambezi, and lying between what was then German South-West Africa on the one side and the Transvaal on the other. Farther north lay the great country now known as Rhodesia.

Rhodes. Rhodes as a young man saw visions, and in middle age saw some at least of his dreams come true. He dreamed of a South Africa, British from the Zambezi to Table Bay; and he had the great satisfaction of adding to the Empire, by his own energy, confidence, and skill, one of the finest of the African territories.

Cecil John Rhodes was born at Bishop's Stortford in 1853, and received his education at the grammar school there. In 1870 he went to Natal for his health; and in 1876 returned to complete his education. For the next three years he was in residence at Oriel College, Oxford, but spent all his Long Vacations in South Africa. After taking his degree at the University, he went back to South Africa, and made a large fortune, rising to be head of the De Beers Diamond Mines (1881); and in 1890 he became Prime Minister of Cape Colony.

The Work of Rhodes. By his federation of the diamond mines of Kimberley, Rhodes assured to South Africa one of the most powerful sources of its prosperity; by his splendid acquisition of Rhodesia, he secured for South Africa a domain of the fairest promise; and when he died his hope of the union of all the South African colonies into one dominion was about to be realized. He left his private house, a beautiful white building among trees and lawns on Groote Schuur, to be the residence of the first Prime Minister of United South Africa; and it had not long to wait. He endowed about 175 scholarships at Oxford, so that selected young men from every part of the Empire overseas, and from the United States and Germany, might come for education there.[1] Those who hold these Scholarships are known as 'Rhodes Scholars'.

[1] The German scholarships were, in consequence of the War of 1914, done away with in favour of additional United States scholarships.

Rhodesia. In 1887 Mashonaland, a large and rich territory, was peopled by a tribe of Zulus under a chief named Lobengula.

It was thought that the Boers and Germans were planning together to occupy it. Cecil Rhodes sent his friend Dr. Jameson to meet Lobengula, and if possible secure from him permission to trade in Mashonaland and to work mines. Dr. Jameson was successful in doing this. Rhodes then asked the British Government to grant him a Charter giving him the power to found a trading Company similar to the former East India Company. Lord Salisbury's Government in 1889 gave this Charter and the Company was formed.

In 1889, however, the land was not yet won. It was in the next year, 1890, that a Pioneer Column, guided by the mighty hunter F. C. Selous, was sent to occupy Matabeleland. The column consisted of about 900 men, many of whom are still alive, taking part in the vigorous life of the land which they have made.

Dr. Leander Starr Jameson, a cool, determined, personally charming man,[1] was Administrator of the Chartered Company's property from 1891 to 1896. In 1893 Lobengula's Matabele were still ravaging the unfortunate Mashonas, and the Company called upon him to desist. Lobengula, too, was beginning to repent of his bargain with the incomers. At length Dr. Jameson led 1,600 men from the British Settlement at Victoria against the centre of Lobengula's power at Buluwayo. At the Shangani River the Matabele were defeated, for even trained Zulu regiments could not stand against machine guns. In the further advance, thirty-one

[1] He is the original of Mr. Kipling's hero in ' If ' (see *Rewards and Fairies*).

troopers under Major Allen Wilson were cut off on the north side of the Shangani, and defending themselves to the last were all killed (December 4, 1893). The main body of Jameson's troops, however, drove Lobengula north to the Zambezi, and the whole territory was put under the administration of the Chartered Company. Lobengula died in January 1894.

The Origin of the Second Boer War. Kruger and his people—the Boers—were annoyed that thousands of Englishmen were coming into their country (especially since the discovery of gold in the Witwatersrand Reef in 1886), buying land, digging mines, claiming citizenship, and disturbing their ancient peace. They feared that if the Uitlanders, as they called the British, received rights of full citizenship, they, always growing more and more, would come to rule the State, and in time to be the State itself. The old Boer Republic would then be practically gone.

The Uitlanders and the Imperial Government itself thought that Englishmen had, in fairness, every right to settle in the Transvaal and to become citizens there; just as the Boers could, if they pleased, go into Cape Colony and Natal, and become British subjects. The dispute between the Imperial Government and the Transvaal was over a demand for equal treatment in the Republic for Boers and Uitlanders. As the law stood in 1894, an Uitlander could not become a full burgher till he had resided fourteen years in the country.

Feelings among British and Boers in South Africa were further inflamed by the raid which Dr. Jameson and 450 police of the Chartered Company made from the Bechuanaland frontier into the Transvaal, with the object of raising a revolution among the Uitlanders in

Johannesburg (December 29, 1895). The raiders were defeated and captured by Commandant Piet Cronje at Doornkop, and were handed over to the British Government for punishment.

The Ultimatum. President Kruger concluded a treaty of alliance, of defence and offence, with the Orange Free State. The Orange Free State was governed by President Steyn, who had no cause to join in war with the British Empire.

The British Colonial Secretary at this time was Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. He worked hard to settle things peaceably. At the beginning of the year 1899 there were only between 10,000 and 12,000 British soldiers in South Africa.

For the past two years the High Commissioner in South Africa had been Sir Alfred Milner, who tried unsuccessfully to come to an agreement with President Kruger.

President Kruger, however, on October 9, 1899, handed a forty-eight hours' ultimatum to the British Resident at Pretoria. This document demanded that all British troops should be withdrawn from the borders of the Transvaal; that the reinforcements which had come to South Africa since June 1 should be sent out of the country; and that the troops which were upon the high seas should not be allowed to land. This dispatch, naturally, received no answer, and on October 12 Boer forces crossed the frontier of Cape Colony.

§ 2. The Second Boer War

Boer Organization and Tactics. The Boers were a nation of farmers. Each household was separated from its neighbours by great distances; riding and shooting were among the common necessities of life.

METRO BOROUGH

The Boer's method of attack was to advance from cover to cover, driving the enemy inwards by good shooting. He never engaged in hand-to-hand fighting.

His equipment was simple. He had no uniform. Each man wore the ordinary garb of the veld, rode a good horse, and carried a proved Government rifle. The Boer artillery numbered only thirty field-guns.

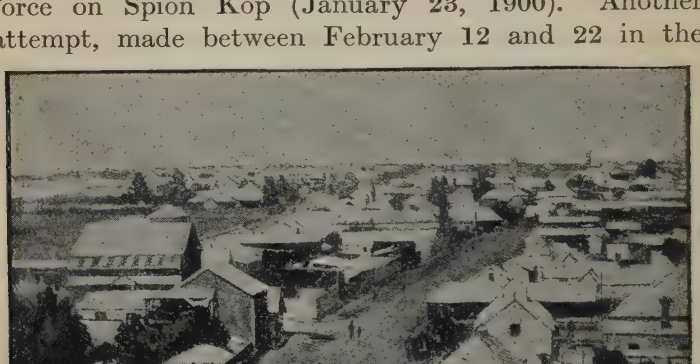
The British Organization and Tactics. The organization of the British Army in the Boer War is acknowledged to have been good. The transport, equipment, and feeding of the troops were excellently managed.

The tactics of the Army were not at first suitable for the South African veld. Moreover, except in India, the British troops had no experience of manœuvring over large spaces of country. It is therefore not to be wondered at now, that the first campaigns of the War were a failure.

The Operations in Natal. In October (1899) a force of about 4,000 Boers invaded Natal, and, although checked at Talana Hill and Elandslaagte (both on October 20), were able to advance to Ladysmith, an important junction on the railway to Durban, and the head-quarters of the British forces in Natal. Outside Ladysmith they captured a whole British column at Nicholson's Nek (October 30). General Sir George White was besieged in Ladysmith for the next four months.

When the siege began, a strong force of Boers under General Botha passed on southwards, in order to hold the line of the Tugela River, which, flowing from west to east, cuts Natal into two parts. Then began a series of determined attempts on the part of the British forces brought up from Durban, to force the line of the Tugela, and to relieve Ladysmith. On December 15 General

Buller, who had been sent out from England as Commander-in-Chief, failed to fight his way over, at Colenso. The next effort to force the Tugela was nearly successful. The British got across the river, but had to retire again, owing to a disaster to General Sir Charles Warren's force on Spion Kop (January 23, 1900). Another attempt, made between February 12 and 22 in the



AN EARLY VIEW OF KIMBERLEY

neighbourhood of Colenso, was completely successful. General Botha, having made a fine defence, withdrew his mobile troops to other fields; and on February 27 the British cavalry were riding into Ladysmith. In the relief operations Buller had lost 5,000 out of his army of 20,000 men.

Operations for the Relief of Kimberley. The Boers had also invaded Cape Colony and were besieging Kimberley, in the most northern portion of the Colony. The operations for the relief of this place were entrusted to Lord Methuen, with 8,000 men. On November 22 (1899)

Methuen crossed the Orange River. A Boer force under General Cronje and de la Rey opposed his advance. On November 23 Methuen fought a successful action at Belmont, and another on November 25 at Graspan. On November 28, he crossed the Modder River, but on December 11, in a night attack on Cronje's prepared lines at Magersfontein, he was seriously repulsed, and had to retire to the Modder again. The week in which Magersfontein was fought was a bad one for Britain, for it included the repulse of Buller at Colenso, and the defeat of General Gatacre at Stormberg on December 9.

Roberts. The most famous living British soldier, Lord Roberts, was then sent out to be Commander-in-Chief in South Africa.[1] Roberts was then aged sixty-eight. He took with him, as Chief of Staff, General Sir Herbert Kitchener, then aged forty-nine. The army was greatly increased, and gradually rose to the number of 150,000, including men from Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, as well as local South African forces.

Paardeberg. Arriving at the Modder on February 9, 1900, Roberts and Kitchener, having now plenty of troops, took in hand a great turning movement, which resulted in the relief of Kimberley by General French's cavalry on February 15. Three days later Kitchener and French cut off Cronje at Paardeberg, where the Boer general was trying to get his troops across, so that he might get them away safely into the Orange Free State. Cronje held out in his laager at Paardeberg till February 27, when he surrendered to Lord Roberts with 4,000 men.

[1] It is reported that the offer of the Government came to Lord Roberts on the same day as he learned of the death of his only son, Lieut. Roberts, V.C., at the battle of Colenso.

The Annexation of the South African Republics. Continuing his victorious course, Lord Roberts entered Bloemfontein on March 13. The Orange Free State was formally annexed to Great Britain. On June 5 Roberts entered Pretoria, and a week later defeated General Botha in the field, at Diamond Hill (June 11). The last place besieged by the Boers, Mafeking, near the Transvaal frontier, in British Bechuanaland, had been relieved by General Plumer in May. Botha fought one more battle at Belfast on August 26, and was defeated. On September 1 (1900) the Transvaal was formally declared to be annexed.

There was no Boer Government, for President Kruger had abandoned the struggle, escaping through Portuguese territory in October 1900. He was conveyed to Europe in a Dutch man-of-war.[1]

At last on May 31, 1902, the Boers agreed to the terms of Vereeniging which were arranged by Sir Alfred Milner and General Kitchener, on the one part, and by Louis Botha and Jan Smuts on the other.

The terms given by the British Government were of the most generous kind. All Boers in arms were to surrender themselves, but were to lose neither their liberty nor their property, and were to be restored by the British Government to their homes. A sum of £3,000,000 was to be given by Great Britain, to help to rebuild the farms destroyed in the war. All Boers returning to their homes were to become British subjects, and were promised self-government at some future, and not distant, date.

Thus ended the Boer War. It had cost Britain 5,774 men killed and 22,829 wounded. The Boers had 4,000

[1] He died in Switzerland in 1904.

BECHUANALAND
PROTECTORATE
Palapye
KALAHARI DESERT
Lehutitang
Khokong
Mokopon
Zeerust
Mafeking
Vryburg
British Bechuanaland
Upington
Griqualand West
Warmbad
Orange R.
Great Bushman Land
Springbok
Prieska
Hopetown
Kimberley
Magersfontein
Modder R.
Orange R.
Carnarvon
Calvinia
Victoria West
Beaufort West
Graaff Reinet
Cradock
Aliwal North
Storm B.
Maclear
Rondo Land
Barkly East
Queenstown
Indwe
Molteno
Dordrecht
Tarkastad
Komgha
Stutterheim
Kei R.
Kei Road
King William's Town
East London
Port Elizabeth
Grahamstown
Uitenhage
Cape Town
Simonstown
Cape of Good Hope
False Bay
Cape Agulhas
Mossel Bay
George
Knysna
Plettenberg Bay
Oudtshoorn
Saldanha Bay
Malmesbury
Tulbagh
Worcester
Paarl
Stellenbosch
Caledon
Swakopmund
Windhoek
Walfish Bay
Keetmannshoop
Nosob R.
Molopo R.
Angra Pequena
Gt. Fish R.
SOUTH-WEST AFRICA
TRANSVAAL
Pietersburg
Nylstroom
Lydenburg
Pretoria
Johannesburg
Potchefstroom
Standerton
Heidelberg
Heilbron
Kroonstad
Bethlehem
Winburg
Ladybrand
Thaba Bosigo
Basuto Land
Ladysmith
Newcastle
Greytown
Pietermaritzburg
Durban
Tugela R.
Zoutpans Berg
Limpopo R.
Barberton
Swazi Land
Lourenço Marques
Tonga Land
Majuba Hill
St. Lucia L.
ORANGE FREE STATE
NATAL
ATLANTIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
Port Nolloth
Port Shepstone
CAPE COLONY
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
English Miles
0 100 200 300
Railways

killed. The two former States—the Orange Free State and Transvaal—were made into British Crown Colonies. In 1906 the Government entrusted them with self-government as complete as that of Cape Colony or Canada. When in 1909 all the colonies of South Africa joined together, General Louis Botha became the first Premier of the Union, the first to occupy the fine white house above Cape Town which Cecil Rhodes had left for united South Africa.

CHAPTER XLVII

THREE DOMINIONS: AUSTRALIA; NEW ZEALAND; CANADA

§ 1. Australia

Discovery of Australia. Australia is a vast continent lying wholly within the southern hemisphere. When great tracts of Europe and Asia were still under the sea, Australia was solidly formed and stood as it does now. Its existence was long suspected, although till the late eighteenth century it was unknown.

The first of the Western peoples to approach it were the Spaniards, when Admiral de Torres sailed through the Torres Straits which lie between Australia and New Guinea. Then followed a number of Dutchmen; the best known of these hardy skippers was Abel Tasman. In 1642, when he was thirty-nine years old, Tasman was sent by Antony Van Diemen, the Governor-General of the Dutch East Indies, to explore the Pacific. He discovered Van Diemen's Land (now called Tasmania, after himself), sailed right round Australia, and dis-

covered New Zealand. The Dutch, however, made no settlements in any of these countries.

The English did not appear on the scene till the end of the seventeenth century. In 1699 the Government of King William III sent Captain William Dampier in the *Roebuck* to make observations round Australia. Dampier was a Somersetshire man, born in 1652, who began his sailing days from the famous old port of Weymouth. He was a regular sea-dog—a trader, a buccaneer, but also a scientific observer. The expedition of 1699 was highly successful. He explored nearly 1,000 miles of the coast of Western Australia, and wrote down the results of his accurate observation.

Captain Cook. The greatest maritime explorer, however, was Captain Cook. James Cook was the son of a farm labourer who lived in Yorkshire. For years he was a merchant seaman, and did not enter the Royal Navy till 1755, when he was twenty-seven years of age. By the year 1768 he had reached the rank of Lieutenant R.N., and had become known to the Admiralty as an expert navigator and surveyor.

In that year he was sent in command of H.M.S. *Endeavour*, 370 tons, to explore in the southern hemisphere. He spent six months in charting the New Zealand coasts, and then made for Australia, where he charted a great part of the east coast. On April 28, 1770, he discovered the great inlet, which he called Botany Bay, because of the splendid number of plants which the land produced. The magnificent natural harbour on which Sydney stands, Cook named Port Jackson, after Sir George Jackson, secretary of the Admiralty. He arrived back in England on June 12, 1771.

Captain Cook made two more voyages, thoroughly

exploring the Pacific, and making invaluable observations off New Zealand, Australia, many of the Pacific Islands, and Alaska. On February 14, 1779, he met his death in a scuffle with some natives (who had stolen one of his ship's boats) on the shore of Hawaii.

The Settling and Opening of the Country. For some years after Cook's discoveries no attempt was made to colonize Australia, although the ' great circumnavigator ' had formally hoisted the British flag there. In 1776, however, the revolt of the American colonies put an end to the transportation of British criminals to America; and the Government, looking round for fresh fields, cast its mind's eye upon the great unoccupied land of Australia. It was believed that criminals had the best chance of reforming if they were taken right away from all their old associations to new scenes and work, where they would begin a new life.

In May 1787, when Pitt was Prime Minister of England, the first fleet sailed for Botany Bay. It consisted of six transports and two warships and three store ships. There were 756 convicts (564 men and 192 women) and 200 officers and men of the army. The whole squadron was under the command of Captain Arthur Phillips, R.N., who was given the temporary rank of commodore. The expedition was well supplied with seed for farming, and had also some live stock—horses, cattle, pigs, and chickens.

On January 20, 1788, the squadron dropped its anchors in Botany Bay, but finding the locality less suitable than was expected, Commodore Phillips moved on to Port Jackson, where the splendid city of Sydney has since risen. Port Jackson continued to receive fresh batches of convicts till 1840.

Convicts. For the first fifty years of its history New South Wales (as Captain Cook had named the east coast of Australia) had a double process of development. There was the convict population, which began arriving from the year 1788; and there was the free population, which began with the arrival of an emigrant ship in 1793. The convicts were entirely at the disposal of the Government, which was in the hands of strong men, generally soldiers, such as Captain Macquarie (Governor from 1809 to 1820).

The early development work of the New South Wales colony was largely carried out by the State authorities, using convict labour. Thus the State undertook to do in Australia many things which in the mother-country have been done by private enterprise.

The Squatters. Free settlers continued to arrive, although not in large numbers, from the year 1793. These established themselves on the land, which, owing to its wide grassy spaces, and also to the scarcity of labour, naturally lent itself to sheep rearing. The better-behaved convicts were 'assigned' to the free settlers. The assigned men were given no wages, and were bound to serve their masters for a certain term of years, varying with their previous offences and with their present behaviour. Thus in the first half of the nineteenth century practically every grazing 'station' of New South Wales was owned by a 'squatter', a free settler, who lived in a large timber house with his wife and children; while near by were the cottages of the 'hands' (assigned convicts) who looked after the sheep, and who also supplied the servants for the squatter's house. The assigned convicts might be married men, with their wives and children who had followed them to Australia. The

squatter had to be a man of strong character to manage such a 'station', but the law was always on his side, and the authorities gave him very strong support.

When the assigned convicts had served their time, they became free.

The Survival of the Free. The free settlers steadily gained in numbers; and with their superior character—their honesty, enterprise, and industry—it was they

AUSTRALIAN WOOL. Woolshed, Ox-Wagons, and Loading Platform

and not the convicts, who were really the people of the country. Those convicts who would not learn good ways, who had no self-respect, became outcasts. They lurked about the gold-diggings, and lived a wretched life of want.

The Explorers. For years after the first settlement, the British only peopled small tracts of the coast on their wonderful new continent. Mountains stopped their advance inland: beyond the mountains was the great unknown country.

The romance of Australian life lies with the explorers:

the men who took their life in their hands and went forth into the wilderness, tracing the course of apparently endless rivers, crossing what seemed to be impenetrable mountain-ranges, dense forest, and thirsty desert.

The great series of inland explorations began with the historic journey of three colonists—Blaxland, Lawson, and Wentworth—in 1813 across the Blue Mountains to the Fish River; and it was only closed in recent years with the exploration of the vast Western and South Australian borderland by John Forest and by David Carnegie.

Other daring explorers were Oxley, Sturt, Eyre, Burke, Wills, and Stuart.

Burke and Wills starting from Menindie on the Darling (about 100 miles east of Broken Hill), travelled with seven men, using horses and camels, northwards to the Flinders River, down which they went till they met the salt waters of the Gulf of Carpentaria. On the return journey, they were disappointed in finding no supplies at Cooper Creek, for the men they had left had abandoned the post. For months they kept themselves alive with some plants and a little food given to them from their scanty supplies by friendly natives. At the last, when a relief party came on their tracks in June 1861, only one of the party, King, was alive.

Next year, 1862, John M'Douall Stuart, crossed the continent from Adelaide to the Gulf of Carpentaria. The line which Stuart explored is now marked by the north to south telegraph line. Stuart never recovered from the privations of his great journey and died in 1866.

Gold. In February 1851 gold was discovered by a Californian prospector at Summerhill Creek, twenty miles north of Bathurst. At once the whole of Australia

was in a turmoil. Hands left the grazing stations, artisans threw down their tools and quitted the towns; from New Zealand, from America, from Britain people came in thousands to the 'diggings'. A new great industry was opened. Every colony was found to contain gold, and so all shared the prosperity.

But for some years the life of the continent was disturbed. The old towns lost many of their people, the farmers could not get hands, mushroom towns arose, prices soared, and in some districts famine actually threatened the people. The diggings became congregations of men, many of them reckless, extravagant, and disorderly. It required a very firm hand to manage a goldfield, but such a hand was generally to be found in the magistrate, usually a strong-willed soldier of the type which has made the British Empire in its outlying parts.

Bushrangers. It was near the goldfields that the *bushrangers* got their chance. These were bands of men who lurked in the lonely valleys and woods, and descended with their horse and gun upon the stage coach that was conveying gold; or they would raid the bank of a little town, provided that they had some helpers among the miners; or they would simply attack a prosperous grazing station and loot the house.

The last bushranger was Edward Kelly, born at Walla-Walla, Victoria, the son of a convict. He was a man of some ability as well as of great daring. His field of operations was the almost trackless border country between Victoria and New South Wales, and he had a regular network of spies and secret agents in the mining towns and even in the stations on each side of the border. Banks, stores, and rich men's houses were

the objects of his plunder; the poorer people he left alone or gave money to, and he claimed never to have injured a woman. Yet the career of this chief among robbers, as an outlaw, only lasted for two years (1878–1880). At the end of this time the police had found him in a log shanty at Glenrowan. The shanty was

surrounded; Kelly's companions were shot dead; and the bushranger himself was taken off to be hanged.

The Goldfields. The diggings are now industrial towns, quiet and orderly, with nothing strange in their appearance other than the countenances of the Chinese laundrymen and shopkeepers. The mines now are mainly in the hands of companies, some of them Australian, some British, and managed with the cleanness and care which is usual in the large business enterprises of the Empire.

The Labour Movement. Australia is the country

where the 'labour movement' has had the greatest chance to develop itself. Before there was a Labour Party in the British Parliament, the manual workers in Australia had made themselves felt as a political force. The labour movement grew out of the feeling which the free settlers had, that the unpaid convict labour caused their wages to be low. Then in the sixties and seventies came the gold rushes, with consequent scarcity of labourers in every employment. Those labourers who were left were therefore able to demand the highest terms from their employers.

Wages rose steadily all through the seventies and remained at a high level through most of the eighties; but towards the end of this decade they began to fall again. The goldfields were now fairly well settled, there was less competition for labour, and some of the great industries of the country were not doing well. The workers grew more and more discontented, and in 1890 a strike in the two great industries—the shearing and the mining—was arranged in every State in Australia. For the whole of the year the strike continued, but as the country was not prosperous, the time chosen was bad, and consequently the strike failed. The employers stood firm, and as they had really little to give away at the time, their cause won.

Thenceforward the more thoughtful men of the manual workers of Australia set themselves to gain by political means what the strike had in the year 1890 failed to gain. A Labour Party was formed in every State. Each member elected to the State Legislature was pledged always to vote with the majority of his party. Accordingly there soon appeared a solid body in State politics, aiming at getting laws passed which should

secure moderate hours of work, good wages, and an equal chance for every one on the land.

By the *Factories and Shops Act* of the State of Victoria (1896) a *special board*, consisting of an equal number of employers and workmen, under an independent chairman, may be established in any particular trade. This board decides the hours of work and rate of wages for its own particular trade. The Australian Commonwealth also gives pensions of 10*s*. a week to people of 65 years of age.

The Australian Commonwealth. In 1900 the British Houses of Parliament passed a Bill known as the Commonwealth of Australia Bill.

Under this Act, the six States—New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, and Tasmania—have their separate Governments, and their Governors who are appointed by the Colonial Office in London. The Federal Government has power to deal with shipping, railways, customs-duties, posts, and telegraphs, immigration, emigration, and certain other matters which concern all the States equally. There is a Federal Governor-General, a Senate to which each State sends six representatives, and a House of Representatives, consisting of men elected in proportion to the population of each State.

The Commonwealth has a strong home-defence system of its own, and every able-bodied citizen is trained to arms.

Froude found the people of Australia in 1884 eager to send a body of men to help in the Egyptian campaign for the relief of General Gordon. Khartum fell and Gordon was killed, but they sent their force none the less. Thirty years later the Australians were again

taking service abroad under the British flag, in England's most gigantic war. But now it was not a contingent that went, but an army ten times as large as that which Wellington led at Waterloo.

§ 2. New Zealand

Settlement of the Colony. New Zealand, which is one of the great self-governing Dominions in the British Empire, is among the youngest of the colonies. It was discovered by the Dutchman Abel Tasman in his famous voyage of 1642. Its coasts were charted by Captain Cook in 1769, but it was not till January 1840 that the British Government sent Captain Hobson, R.N., formally to take possession of the islands.

The New Zealand islands form a group of about the same size as the British Isles, and in 1840 they had a native population of about 60,000 intelligent, vigorous, and warlike Maori. This people took ten years to conquer and now live in their own territories with the rights of citizens.

Growth of the Population. Settlers came only slowly into New Zealand, despite its temperate and genial climate, and its beautiful grasslands which provided a splendid livelihood for the industrious worker. In 1840 the colony began with about 2,000 white people; the next twenty years brought the white population to about 100,000. After 1860, however, the discovery of gold and the consequent opening of many industries attracted a large number of settlers. New Zealand is now a very prosperous State with upwards of a million people.

Sir George Grey. Sir George Grey has left the mark of his work in three great Dominions. The son of a Peninsular officer who was killed at the storming of

Badajoz, Grey was born at Lisbon in 1812; his life lasted till 1898. After passing through Sandhurst he spent eight years in the army. In 1837 he went to West Australia in an exploring expedition equipped by the Royal Geographical Society of London. His work was so notable that in 1840 Lord John Russell appointed him Governor of South Australia. From there after five years of successful work, Captain Grey was sent as Governor to New Zealand. He at once set himself actively to improve the colony, building roads, making friendly relations with the natives, purchasing land on fair terms from them, and arranging for its permanent settlement.

In 1854, when Grey had succeeded in making New Zealand settled and prosperous, he was sent to Cape Colony as Governor. After doing good work Grey returned as Governor of New Zealand in 1861.

The Maori Wars. In spite of Grey's sympathy with the Maori and his strictly honourable dealing with them, a war broke forth in 1861 between the white settlers and the natives. The Maori were skilful fighters, and as they now possessed rifles and gunpowder, it was a work of immense difficulty to reduce them among the forests and mountains of North Island. Gradually the natives were penned in more and more restricted territories, but it required 15,000 regular troops, 15,000 colonial riflemen, and ten years of fighting before the last Maori stockade was captured. The Maori are now settled by themselves in large State reservations of land, which no white man is allowed either to buy or take from them.

In 1868 Grey was dismissed because he objected to Maori land being taken from the natives after the rebellion. In 1877 he was Premier of New Zealand, and was able to pass laws to improve education.

The New Zealand of to-day. New Zealand is not a member of the Australian Commonwealth, but stands alone, proud of its history, of its efficiency, and of its place in the Empire. For the last twenty years the Liberal Party has chiefly been in power. The State engages with great activity in railway work, in mining, and in carefully regulating the payment and hours of labour. The Government owns most of the land, which is granted on long leases—up to 999 years—at moderate rentals. Every man serves in the forces, and for the European War of 1914–1918 drafts by conscription were regularly sent to maintain the New Zealand contingent.

In this distant Dominion the ordinary features of English life are reproduced more closely than in any other colony, except that there are no beggars, and there is still unoccupied land to be leased.

§ 3. Canada

Upper and Lower Canada. In the thirty years following the annexation of Canada the country prospered, and, except during the American War of Independence, enjoyed peace. In 1791 Pitt, who was then Prime Minister of England, divided Canada at the Ottawa River into two provinces, Upper Canada to the west, with its capital at York (now called Toronto), and Lower Canada to the east, with its capital at Quebec. Each Province had a legislature of its own.

The Movement Westwards. The movement westwards to the Pacific was due chiefly to the enterprise of two Scotsmen, Alexander Mackenzie and Lord Selkirk. Alexander Mackenzie came out from Scotland as a clerk in the counting-house of the North-West Company, a rival of the Hudson's Bay Company. In 1789 he

discovered the great river which now bears his name, and sailed down it into the Arctic Ocean. In 1793 he ascended the Peace River, and then by land reached the Pacific.

In 1811 Thomas Douglas, fifth Earl of Selkirk, in order to relieve distress in Scotland, acquired 70,000 square miles of territory from the Hudson's Bay Company, and settled a large number of Scottish peasant families upon it. The settlement was on the Red River, which flows into the south end of Lake Winnipeg. This provoked a regular war between the armed forces of the North-West Company and the Hudson's Bay Company.[1] The quarrel ended by the two Companies joining in 1821. After this the West of Canada was steadily, though not rapidly, opened.

The Canada Company. The Canada Company, which was founded in 1824, acquired eleven hundred thousand acres of land along Lake Huron, and spent a large sum of money in opening the country for settlement. A road was made connecting Lakes Huron and Ontario, and the town of Guelph was planted in the centre of the Company's property (1827).

In Upper and Lower Canada schools were established. The only thing which was disturbed in the country was politics. The ordinary French-Canadians took little interest in politics, but their leaders were extremely keen and energetic. These leaders had frequent disputes with the Governor. In 1837 there were two serious rebellions, one in Lower Canada, aroused by Louis

[1] In 1869 the Hudson's Bay Company gave up its territory to the Dominion Government. The Red River settlers refused to recognize the transfer, rose in rebellion, and were only brought to order by a military expedition under Sir Garnet Wolseley.

Papineau; the other in Upper Canada, organized by William Lyon Mackenzie. Both revolts were put down after some sharp fighting. The result was to convince the British Government that some better system of government must be established. It was to consider the best means of introducing this that Lord Durham was sent on his famous mission to Canada.

The Durham Report. Lord Durham was an advanced Liberal, who had been Ambassador at Petrograd. He had many qualities to fit him for his work in Canada.

He arrived in the country in May 1838 and remained five months, resigning at the end of this time because the Home Government censured his treatment of the rebels. During his stay he collected the materials for the Report which bears his name.

Two recommendations stood out clearly. Those were that complete self-government should be given to the

Canadian people ; and that Upper and Lower Canada should be joined into one. The union of Upper and Lower Canada would bring French and English together under one Government. The long-continued stream of immigration from Britain was now making the population of Canada mostly English in tongue.

Lord Durham's recommendations were carried into effect. The Act for the union of Upper and Lower Canada passed the British Parliament in 1840. Since that time Canada has managed her own affairs as one of the great self-governing dominions of the British Empire.

The British North America Act. In 1867, by agreement between the different provinces, Canada was separated into the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec. These with Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were then federated into the Dominion of Canada. Each province had its own system of local self-government, under its own lieutenant-governor and its own provincial legislature. Matters which concern the Dominion as a whole are dealt with by the Dominion Government at Ottawa ; matters which each province can manage and pay for, by itself, are left to it to manage.

Prince Edward Island joined the Dominion as a province in 1873, so that all the Eastern Provinces were within the Dominion. In 1869 the Hudson's Bay Company gave up its property to the Dominion, receiving for it £300,000 and one-twentieth of the land known as the *fertile belt* between the United States Boundary and the Saskatchewan River. The Dominion of Canada now stretches from Atlantic to Pacific, and from the Great Lakes to the Arctic snows.

Communications. Canada has a magnificent system

of river and canal communications. The most important canals are called Rideau Canal and Welland Canal.

Water-communication, however, is not sufficient. The great transcontinental railways have bound Canada together.

The first railway to be started on a large scale was the Grand Trunk, which by the year 1860 was running trains to Sarnia on Lake Huron. Bit by bit, with its allied company the Grand Trunk Pacific, it has spanned the whole continent. The Grand Trunk Pacific Company was formed and paid for by Englishmen,[1] and although it has reached its goal on the Pacific it took over forty years to do so. The line which first spanned the continent was a purely Canadian concern—the Canadian Pacific Railway.

From the time the Dominion was established, and especially after British Columbia joined it in 1871, the need for a transcontinental line was urgently felt. In 1881 the Government gave the concession to a company formed by prominent Canadians, one of whom became well known later in Great Britain as Lord Strathcona. It was an immense undertaking for a private company, for the permanent way had to be laid for three thousand miles, through forests and over river, swamp, and mountain-range. The greater part of the country was still unsettled; the railway, in fact, would have itself to carry and settle the colonists who would ultimately supply it with freight. This is why the history of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company is so closely connected with the development of modern Canada. As the line advanced the country became cleared for settlement. Farms and townships were dotted everywhere,

[1] In 1919 it was purchased by the Canadian Government.

and vast wheatfields began to take the place of the rolling prairie. The Government helped the Company with grants of money and free land, and with so much energy was the line pushed forward that by 1886 it was complete across the continent.

Modern Canada. Since this time Canada has developed quickly and solidly. It is the greatest wheat-producing country in the British Empire; and yet if a traveller only visited its big cities and mining camps he would consider it to be an excellent industrial country. Since the opening of the nineteenth century schools, colleges, and universities like McGill University, Montreal (1821), have been established, and now from Halifax to British Columbia each large centre of population has a well-equipped and enthusiastic university at its door.

CHAPTER XLVIII

DOMESTIC HISTORY BEFORE THE GREAT WAR

§ 1. The Party System

The Political Aspect. In Great Britain till the Great War the system known as party-government was mostly carried on by two really large parties—the Conservatives (including Unionists [1]) and the Liberals.

From 1895 to the end of 1905, the Unionist-Conservative Party was in a clear majority; and from 1906 to 1914, the Liberal Party likewise commanded a clear majority. Thus each party had a good innings, and by the score it made must be judged in history.

[1] The term Unionist is the same as Liberal Unionist, the adjunct 'Liberal' falling gradually into disuse in the twentieth century.

The Coalition Ministry. When Lord Rosebery resigned office in June 1895, Lord Salisbury became Prime Minister. The General Election which ensued returned a majority of 152 Conservatives and Unionists over Liberals and Home Rulers. The Liberal Unionists supported the Conservative Party, and now, for the first time, consented to take office with them. The Duke of Devonshire, the Marquis of Lansdowne, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain—old Liberals who had left Mr. Gladstone rather than support Home Rule—became members of Lord Salisbury's Cabinet.

Among the Conservative statesmen, Mr. Arthur Balfour was leader of the House of Commons.

From this time Conservatives and Liberal Unionists gradually became known as Unionists.

§ 2. Ireland

The history of Ireland between 1895 and 1914 falls into two distinct periods, that under the Unionist Government in England from 1895 to 1905, and the period of Liberal Government from 1906 to 1914. In the first period the Home Rule question was kept more or less in the background.

The Irish Agricultural Organization Society. After 1895 the land began to return a bountiful increase, peasants in ever greater numbers bought their holdings, the money deposited in the banks grew steadily every year, and all classes, from highest to lowest, felt the sunshine of prosperity. All this was very largely due to wise government.

In 1894 Horace Plunkett started the Irish Agricultural Organization Society. Its object was to help Irish peasants and farmers to help themselves. In particular,

it instructed them, by lectures, classes, and personal effort, to form local co-operative societies. The small farmers of each district were shown how to join together in bodies, which could buy seeds and manures on good terms, in the best market, for their members; or in creamery societies, which could build factories, where the milk from every member's farm could be made into cream or butter, and then sold in bulk in the large towns or in England; or in credit-societies, co-operative banks, where each member could get an advance of money, to buy a new horse or bull or cow, without having to go to the 'gombeen-man', or village money-lender, who was generally also the local publican.

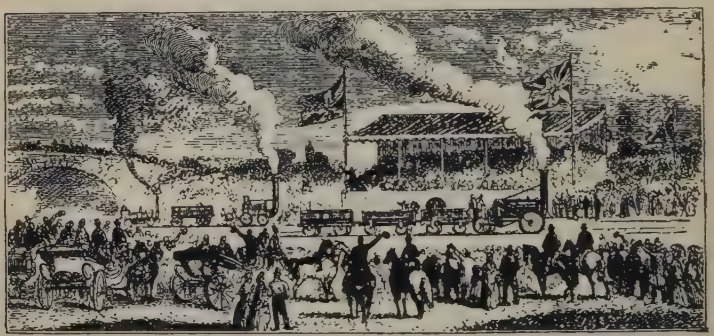
This system of self-help proved wonderfully successful. In village after village co-operative societies sprang up; the small farmers got the advantage of collective buying and selling; they became substantial, self-respecting men, with money in the bank, and a keen interest in their land.

The Wyndham Act of 1903 provided £100,000,000, which was to be advanced by the British Government, in amounts of £5,000,000 a year, to purchase Irish estates. The landlords were not compelled to sell, but they were offered a good bargain. The estates thus purchased were then broken up and offered to the peasants as small farms. Any one who took one of these small farms agreed to repay to the State the purchase money, together with 3¼ per cent. interest, by annual payments spread over 68½ years.

It was a good Act. The landlords were fairly treated; the peasants bought their holding fairly, and paid for it, year by year, with the money they made by the land. Many thousands of acres were in this way acquired by the

Irish peasantry, who thus became firmly settled on their own land. It is calculated that half the land of Ireland is now owned by the former tenants ; of the other half, a considerable portion is bog, and therefore useless in anybody's hands.

The Third Home Rule Bill. At the General Election in 1906, the Liberal Party was returned to power, with a large majority.



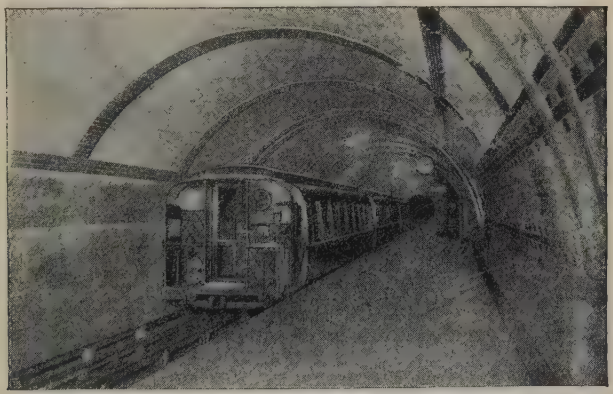
TRANSPORT in 1829. Locomotive Competition at Rainhill. The Rocket in front

The demand for Home Rule, made by the Nationalists, led by Mr. John Redmond, was readily met by Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman and by Mr. Asquith, who succeeded as Prime Minister in 1908.

The Third Home Rule Bill was passed in 1914, by the consent of the King and Commons.

Meanwhile the people of Ulster, mainly Protestants, announced that they would never submit to the Home Rule Act ; and they organized and drilled themselves in battalions while the Government made no effort to stop them. The Ulstermen were drilling, the Government was looking on, and the Unionist Party in

England, through its leader Mr. Bonar Law, had publicly promised to support the Ulstermen. Civil war threatened in Ireland. Then came the European War and the Home Rule Act was suspended. The Ulster battalions turned their arms against the Germans; and subsequently the Government announced that Ulster would not be compelled, against her will, to come under Home Rule. It was hoped that she would



TRANSPORT TO-DAY. A LONDON TUBE STATION

in time, of her own free will, join a united self-governing Ireland.

In the midst of the controversy King Edward VII died (May 6, 1910). He was succeeded by his only surviving son, George Frederick, as George V.

§ 3. Tariff Reform

Free Trade and Protection. Important as was the question of Ireland, there were three other things of even surpassing importance in the history of the years 1900–1914. These were the Franco-British entente, the

labour movement, and the movement for Protection by Tariff.

A Tariff for Protection means that on goods coming from foreign countries a duty should be paid that should make it impossible for such goods to be sold at a cheaper rate than our manufacturers could sell them.

The advantage of Free Trade is that it allows each country to devote itself to producing the things for which it is best suited, and to import the things which it is not naturally fitted to produce. Many people hold that under Free Trade the population of Great Britain has become too industrial, with too few workers in agriculture.

The Corn Duty. During the Boer War (1899 to 1902) a duty of one shilling per quarter had been laid on imported wheat. It gained a small revenue for the Government, but of course it raised the price of imported wheat by one shilling ; and incidentally raised the price of British wheat by one shilling too, although the British farmers had not to pay the tax. The tax was only a measure for the war, but when the war was over Mr. Chamberlain proposed that the duty should be maintained for foreign wheat, and not charged on wheat which came from the overseas dominions. This was to be the beginning of a scheme of Imperial Preference, by which the British colonial producers were to have an advantage over all foreigners.

During Mr. Balfour's period of office much useful work was done, the Army was reorganized, the Anglo-Japanese Alliance and the Anglo-French Entente were arranged.

In 1906 the Unionists were defeated at the General Election, and the Liberal Government which followed

were pledged to maintain Free Trade. So affairs stood till the European War began in 1914.

§ 4. The Liberal Government

The Liberal triumph. The Government which in 1906 succeeded that of Mr. Balfour included many men who became noted. Among these were Mr. Asquith, Mr. Lloyd George, Mr. Winston Churchill, and Sir Edward Grey.

Military System. One of the first things to be taken in hand was defence. Military defence was Lord Haldane's special charge. His great achievements were, in the first place, the creation of the Territorial Force. This took the place of the old Volunteer Army. The Territorial Force was based on the County system. Thus most regiments came to have units as follows: the first and second battalions were *Regular*, the third was *Special Reserve*, the fourth was *Territorial*. Thus there came into being a second or Territorial army. When the War broke out in August 1914, the Territorial Force grew rapidly, and fresh battalions were formed, by voluntary recruiting in practically every Territorial battalion.

The Special Reserve was the old Militia, under another name. Every one who joined the Special Reserve (or third battalion of most regiments) was 'called up' on the outbreak of War in 1914. In time of peace their men and officers live as civilians.

The third military reform of Lord Haldane was to create the Officers Training Corps. Every University was encouraged to form a corps out of its members. The object of these Officers Training Corps was to fit a large number of educated young men to be officers if the need arose.

This system proved of immense use at the outbreak of the War in 1914.

The Navy. The efficiency of the Navy was maintained and Admiral John Fisher, who was chief adviser, was careful to see that all ships, which were not perfect or up to date, were 'scrapped'. He also advised that heavy 'capital' ships, battleships, and battle-cruisers should be built in sufficient numbers.

TELEGRAPH BY SEMAPHORE. 1842

Social Laws. The Government looked after the welfare of the people by passing several useful Acts.

One of these provided for the raising and spending of money for dinners for the poorest school-children.

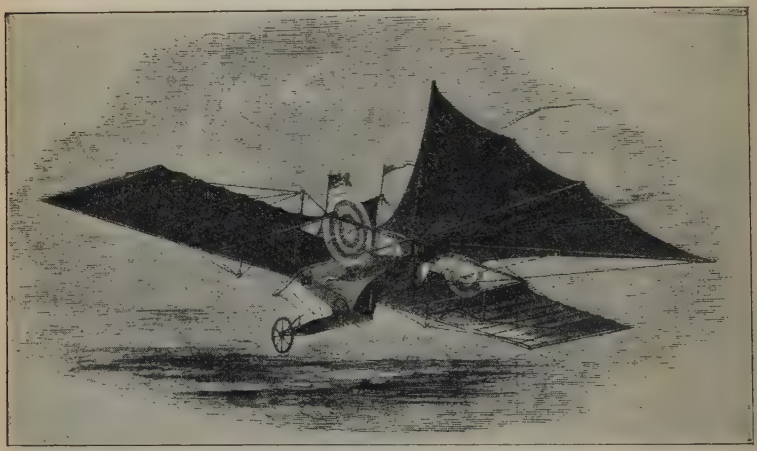
The Old Age Pensions Act (1908) allowed every one who was seventy years of age or more, and who had less than £21 per annum, to claim from the State five shillings a week.

Two years later, Mr Lloyd George, who was then Chancellor of the Exchequer, brought forward his scheme for 'national health insurance'. A fund was established, into which all workers earning less than £160 a year were compelled to pay fourpence a week out of their wages; the employer had to contribute another fivepence for each of his workmen, and the State threepence. Out of the Fund payments are made to workers who fall sick. The Bill was opposed by many people throughout the length and breadth of the country, but the Government insisted on passing the Bill, which, after becoming law, has worked smoothly and proved an undoubted benefit to the mass of the people. At the same time an Unemployment Insurance Act was passed for the Building Trade; in 1920 the Act was extended to other trades, and now deals with about twelve million workers. Like the National Health Insurance scheme, the Unemployment Insurance scheme depends on contributions paid by the workmen, the employers, and the State.

A CENTRAL TELEPHONE EXCHANGE TO-DAY

The House of Lords. Nearly all the Peers were

hereditary; they were not chosen to represent the country at all. The great majority of them were Conservative. Thus, it was pointed out, the Bills of Conservative Governments were easily passed by the House of Lords, while the Bills of Liberal Governments were often defeated. The Liberal Government of 1906



HENSON'S AERIAL STEAM-CARRIAGE (1842) failed through lack of motive power

was determined to reduce the powers of the House of Lords; the Lords should be able to postpone Bills and to discuss them very thoroughly, but should not be able to reject them outright.

The Parliament Act. The Government determined to bring in a Bill taking from the Lords their power of rejecting Acts passed through the Commons.

The Parliament Bill was duly passed through the House of Commons, and then went before the Lords. Naturally there was great opposition. On the last evening a magnificent debate took place. Amid pro-

found calm Lord Morley announced that the Government had the promise of the King to create sufficient new Peers to overcome any opposition. With many protests, therefore, the Bill was passed (August 1911). The bulk of the Conservative peers, under Lord Lansdowne, left the House without voting, just as the Duke

AN AEROPLANE TO-DAY

of Wellington's followers did at the time of the Reform Bill in 1832.

The Parliament Act provided that any Bill which has passed in three successive sessions of the House of Commons shall become law notwithstanding the opposition of the House of Lords.

Results of the Parliament Act. The Parliament Act was really passed in order to get a Home Rule Bill through Parliament; for it was well known that that was one thing to which the Lords would never assent. When the Parliament Bill became law, the Home Rule

Bill was introduced in the House of Commons. It was passed through the Lower Chamber, twice rejected by the Lords, and finally passed into law by and with the consent of the King and Commons.

The End of a Period. It is only now and then that historians come to a real dividing-line in the roll of the past which they unfold. The Norman Conquest is such a line, a red line, it has been called, drawn across the history of England. The year 1789 is another fixed point: Europe was a different place before it, and after. And now our story of England stops with 1914, and the outbreak of the European War. Here we have a real dividing-line, a deep trench indeed, across the history of the whole world.

The eight years which preceded the War were prosperous, but troubled. Work was plentiful; food, clothing, all the necessities and many of the luxuries of life, were still comparatively cheap; wages were steadily rising, and all classes lived in a state of plenty. Yet there was serious trouble brewing over Europe and over the British Isles. In England there was a great railway strike in 1911, and a coal strike in 1912.

In Ireland civil war was about to break out when the European crisis arose.

CHAPTER XLIX

FOREIGN POLICY FROM 1878 TO THE GREAT WAR

§ 1. The Concert of Europe

A Foreign Policy. The object of a ' foreign policy ' is to keep a country's relations with other countries friendly and peaceful, just as good manners and a clean character keep a man's relations friendly and peaceful with his neighbours. In the relations of private life, when the worst comes to the worst, a man can always appeal to the law of the land to settle disputes with his neighbour. Independent States, however, had (until the League of Nations was established in 1920) no such court to control their actions ; the only course left was war. The object of a healthy foreign policy is to make unnecessary the appeal to war.

Since 1815 England has endeavoured to keep peace with its European neighbours, in two ways ; first to abstain from entering into any agreements or alliances which might involve the country in unforeseen struggles, at unexpected times. The other means was to support the Concert of Europe, as a way of settling any international disputes which seemed likely to produce war.

The Concert of Europe. The ' Concert ' was the understanding between the chief Powers of Europe that, when anything threatened the general peace, they would come together to see if they could peacefully settle the dispute.

Nevertheless, any State that was determined to go to war could refuse to come to a Congress, so that, when most required, as in the Austro-Serbian question of 1914, the Concert could do nothing and did not even meet.

Actually the Concert of Europe has only met thrice in full session in the last forty years; in 1878, at Berlin, when it settled the frontiers of the Balkan States after the Russo-Turkish War; in 1906 at Algeciras, when it settled the relations of France and Germany as regards Morocco; and in 1913 at London, when it made a new settlement of the Balkan frontiers, a settlement, however, which, though accepted by the Balkan States at the moment, was not carried into effect.

§ 2. Turkey

Turkey. The main part of the Eastern Question—what to do with Turkey?—is still unsolved. In the last forty years European Turkey has lost one province after another, yet the Turk still remains in Europe. In 1878 the Congress of Berlin at the end of the Russo-Turkish War took from him Bulgaria (a small Bulgaria), and a part of Herzegovina, which was given to Montenegro. Austria received the right and duty of administering Bosnia and Herzegovina. Britain had already received from Turkey the administration of Cyprus. In 1881 the Powers induced Turkey to give Thessaly to Greece. In 1885 the young State of Bulgaria added to itself Eastern Rumelia, the Turkish province south of the Balkans.

Macedonia. Still the Turk clung to Constantinople and Thrace, to Macedonia and Albania. Where the Turkish Government rules, the soil becomes barren, the people remain poor and ignorant. In Thrace, where the people are mainly Turkish, the responsibility for rule or misrule was considered the Turk's affair only; but in Macedonia the Bulgars, Greeks, and Serbians called for union with their kin. In their tumble-down villages each founded its little school. Now and again bands of

their young men revolted, and then the Turks swept the country with their ragged troops, and bloodshed and mutilation, seldom the work of one side only, cast their horrid shadow over a famished land.

Something has been done in the last thirty years to settle the troubles of Macedonia and Albania, but the result so far has not been very fortunate.

The Young Turks. In 1908 the Turks had a revolution. The *Young Turkish* party, one of the chiefs of which was Enver Bey, an active young colonel, deposed the Sultan Abdul Hamid, and set up a new Sultan with a Parliament. The rule of the Young Turks, however, proved no better than Abdul Hamid's.

In 1908 Austria, without consulting the other Powers, annexed the Turkish provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Four years later Italy made war upon Turkey, and took from her the northern African province of Tripoli.

The First Balkan War. The Balkan States—Greece, Serbia, Montenegro, and Bulgaria—fearing that Austria might occupy still more Turkish territory, had formed a *Balkan League* (1909). The chief promoters of this alliance were Eleutheros Venizelos, the Prime Minister of Greece, and King Ferdinand of Bulgaria. In 1912, when they felt ready, the members of the league demanded that Turkey should reform Macedonia in earnest, and when the negotiations began to drag on as usual, they declared war. The Turkish army collapsed, and the whole of Turkey in Europe was conquered, except the Chatalja lines which protect Constantinople, and the Peninsula of Gallipoli.

At this point in the Balkan War, the British Foreign Secretary, Sir Edward Grey, proposed that the Balkan

statesmen should meet in London, and that a Conference of the Powers should take place there at the same time. The proposal was accepted, and at the Palace of St. James's the Treaty of London was concluded on May 30, 1913. By this treaty Turkey ceded all her territory in Europe (except Albania) north of the line Enos–Midia, and the ceded territory was to be shared between Greece, Serbia, Montenegro, and Bulgaria. Albania was to be an independent State.

The Second Balkan War. Unfortunately the Balkan States immediately quarrelled over the division, and after a second short but bloody war of Bulgaria against Greece, Serbia, and Rumania (which had not joined in the first war), they made a new treaty on their own account, at Bucharest (August 10, 1913).

This miserable Second Balkan War, with its unfortunate Treaty of Bucharest, bore fatal fruit next year. For Bulgaria had to give up to Serbia a good part of what she claimed as Bulgarian Macedonia ; and she also had to give up the Bulgarian Dobruja to Rumania. It was to recover these that she entered the European War on the side of Germany and Austria in October 1915. Turkey also had taken advantage of the Second Balkan War to advance beyond the Enos–Midia line and to re-enter Adrianople. Thus she recovered her place in south-eastern Europe. When the European War broke out in August 1914, Turkey was ready to take a part.

Turkey joins in the European War. The influence of Germany had for years been steadily increasing over that of Great Britain at Constantinople ; and the friendship of Great Britain with Russia (a very old enemy of the Turks) tended further to incline the Porte

to the German side. By the Treaty of Paris, 1856, the Turks were obliged to close the Dardanelles to the ships of war of all nations when the Porte was at peace. Yet on August 11, 1914, the Turkish Government admitted into the Dardanelles the German warships *Goeben* and *Breslau*, which were escaping from the British and French Mediterranean squadrons. Notwithstanding this, Britain, France, and Russia promised that they would in no way interfere with the independence of the Turks if they remained neutral.

This should have convinced the Turks that their country was safe enough from any designs on the part of the Entente. After a few weeks of pretence, Turkey threw off the mask and made war upon the Entente Powers on October 29, 1914.

§ 3. Great Britain and Germany

Relations with Germany. During Queen Victoria's reign the relations which existed between England and Germany were, on the whole, friendly. The dual alliance between Germany and Austria (1879) was welcomed by Lord Salisbury as a guarantee that these two Powers would fight each other no more; and when the alliance became Triple, through Italy joining in 1882, this was thought to be only another step in a peaceful association.

After 1890, however, an unfriendly feeling gradually grew between Great Britain and Germany. This can be traced to three special causes: the accession of the Emperor William II in 1888; the creation and rapid growth of a German battle-fleet; and the gradually growing power of Germany at Constantinople.

This unfriendly feeling was shown in the Emperor's

telegram to Mr. Kruger in 1896; the visit of the Emperor to Tangier in 1905; the Algeciras Conference in the next year; the Agadir Affair in 1911; and lastly, the European crisis of July 1914.

The first cause of strain was then the accession of the Emperor William II in 1888. He was anxious that Germany should be great and splendid, in Europe, on the sea, and in Asia. He dropped the cautious 'pilot', Prince Bismarck, and chose Chancellors who would defer

THE CHANNEL FLEET IN 1800

more to his will. He worked unceasingly to make Germany a successful commercial rival of Great Britain.

The creation of a great German Fleet deepened Britain's feelings of mistrust. Till 1890 the Germans had practically no battle-fleet; and as their sea-board was not large and their colonies were few, they seemed wise in saving themselves this expense. William II, however, gradually built up a very fine navy. This caused many people to come to the conclusion that the only purpose of the German fleet must be some day to take part in an invasion of England.

Turkey, always threatened with ejection from Europe, and ready to make friends with any one who seemed

likely to support her, had between 1890 and 1914 greatly favoured Germany and its business men, by granting them special favours, both in Constantinople and in Asia Minor. The most important of these was permission to build a railway in 1899 from Konieh in Asia Minor to Bagdad, the capital of the Turkish province of Mesopotamia, and thence to the Persian Gulf at Koweit. This concession

THE NORTH SEA FLEET TO-DAY

brought German influence into the Tigris region, where the British (owing to our Indian Empire) had also great interests. The Bagdad railway was not completed in the period between 1899 and 1914, but about 1,200 miles of it were constructed, so Britain looked like being gradually made to take a second place to the Germans in Mesopotamia and Asia Minor.

The Crises. The next stage was the Tangier episode. In 1904 France had begun to take an interest in Morocco; but the German Emperor did not wish to see Morocco become a sort of French Egypt. In March 1905 he surprised

Europe by steaming in his yacht to Tangier, and there delivering himself of a speech on the independence of Morocco. German interests, he said, must be safeguarded. The speech was a challenge not merely to France, but to England, which had by treaty agreed with France's action in Morocco.

A Conference of representatives of Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Italy, and Spain met at Algeciras, a beautiful Spanish seaside town near Gibraltar. The meeting was presided over by a Spanish grandee, the Duke of Almadova. The result was an Act (1906) acceded to by all the Great Powers, to the effect that the Sultan of Morocco should remain independent, that his territories should be kept entire, and that the commerce of all nations should be equally free there.

The country, however, was constantly suffering from civil war and brigandage. Things got so bad that in 1911 the Sultan himself asked France, who, through possessing Algiers, was a close neighbour of his, to come to his help. France gave notice of her intention to the Powers who had signed the Act of Algeciras, and in April 1911 sent a small military expedition to Fez. Thus the French began to police Morocco, somewhat in the same way as Great Britain began to police Egypt, and with much the same results. For they have remained in the troubled country, and have brought peace within its borders. The Sultan of Morocco is still there, but it is the corps of French officials and soldiers which keeps the land from anarchy.

Germany had not objected to the French expedition into Morocco in April 1911, but soon afterwards she thought that a French occupation of the country was

against the Act of Algeciras and against German interests. So to show that Germany was not sleeping, and that her arm was long, she suddenly sent the gunboat *Panther* and the cruiser *Berlin* to the Moroccan harbour of Agadir (July 1, 1911). This action was meant to show that Germany could intervene to protect her subjects in Morocco, just as well as France could to protect French subjects.

For a month or two the chance of peace and war trembled in the balance. Then the British Government spoke, saying that if France were attacked for her action in Morocco, Great Britain would stand by her. The German Government saw what was meant, and as they did not wish to fight France and England together, they held their hand again. They went on building their fleet, however, and raised an extra 50 million pounds to increase their army.

The German Emperor then tried to come to an agreement with England. He let it be known that he would like to meet a British statesman. So in February 1912 Lord Haldane was sent to Berlin. He had some very friendly conversations with the Kaiser, and a few, not quite so smooth, with the Chancellor Bethmann-Hollweg. Lord Haldane's proposal was that the Germans should not go on making a huge fleet. This the German Government refused to agree to unless England would bind herself to be neutral in the event of a European War.

The Triple Entente. In 1904 the British and French Governments had made two treaties—one concerning Egypt and Morocco, the other concerning Newfoundland (April 8). By the first agreement France had recognized England's power in Egypt and England had recognized France's special interest in Morocco. By the second

agreement France gave up her right to erect fishermen's huts and workshops on the north-eastern and north-western coast of Newfoundland. In return for this France received a piece of Gambia, in West Africa, from Great Britain.

Three years later Great Britain concluded an agreement with Russia concerning Persia, Afghanistan, and Tibet (August 31, 1907). By this the two Powers bound themselves not to compete with each other for political influence in these three countries. Thus Great Britain had made friends with France (in 1904) and with Russia (in 1907); France was already allied with Russia (since 1896); accordingly all three countries were now connected with each other; the *Triple Entente* was made. It is well known that the Entente was due to King Edward VII, and would never have come into effect without his visits to President Loubet and to the Tsar Nicholas II.

The object of the Triple Entente was to show that in Europe, besides the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy, there was another friendly group—namely, Great Britain, France, and Russia. It was not a military alliance, and it did not intend to go to war with the Central Powers. Rather the Entente Powers hoped to avoid war, by showing the Triple Alliance that none of them stood quite alone, and that war would be a very risky thing.

The Crisis of July 1914. On June 28 the heir to the Austrian throne, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, was assassinated in his carriage in Sarajevo, the capital of the Austrian province of Bosnia. Austria, accordingly, on July 23 sent an ultimatum to Belgrade, demanding among other things that certain Serbian officers (to be

named by Austria) should be dismissed from the Serbian army, and that in the search in Serbia for persons suspected of the Sarajevo conspiracy, Austrian officials should take part. Only forty-eight hours were allowed for an answer, so that no time was permitted for any explanation, bargaining or compromise which might have spared the Serbian feelings, while inducing them to accept the terms. When the forty-eight hours expired the Austrians began war on Serbia.

Unfortunately the war could not be confined to the Balkans, for the Russian Government had told Serbia she would support her. At the end of July Russia began to get her armies ready to help Serbia; and thereupon Germany presented an ultimatum to Russia (August 1). No reply being received to this, Germany immediately made war, by attacking Russia's ally, France, through the 'neutralized' country of Belgium (August 4).

The British Attitude. In the month which preceded the German invasion of Belgium, anxious inquiries had been made by both the French and German Governments about the British intentions in the event of a European War. The Government would not promise to fight for France; nor would it promise to remain neutral. It would see how each side acted.

There were two things which helped to decide the attitude of the British Government in July 1914. One was the disposition of the French Fleet, the other was Belgium. In 1912 France, knowing that she had nothing to fear from England, had removed most of her Fleet from the Channel and Bay of Biscay, and concentrated it in the Mediterranean. Great Britain at the same time had removed the greater part of her Fleet from the Mediterranean, and had concentrated it where she

thought it most likely to be wanted, namely, in the Channel and North Sea. Thus when the crisis of 1914 arose, the northern and western coasts of France were quite undefended.

Accordingly the British Government felt bound, in fairness, on August 2 (1914) to give an assurance to the French Government :

'That if the German Fleet came into the Channel or through the North Sea to undertake hostile operations against the French coasts or shipping, the British Fleet would give all the protection in its power.'

The second thing which went to decide the attitude of the British Government was Belgium. In 1839 the independence and neutrality of Belgium had been recognized and guaranteed by the famous Treaty of London (April 19, 1839) between Great Britain, France, Austria, Russia, and Prussia.

On August 2, 1914, however, the German Government (in which Prussia has the commanding part) sent to the Belgian Government a message saying that :

'The measures of Germany's opponents force Germany, for her own protection, to enter Belgian territory.'

The reply of the Belgian Government was that, in accordance with her engagements, she would do her best to repel any Power which infringed her neutrality. The British Government had already demanded from Germany an undertaking that she would respect the Treaty of 1839. As this was disregarded, and as on August 4 the German army had crossed the Belgian frontier, Great Britain declared war. The notice was posted outside the door of the Foreign Office, fifteen minutes after midnight, on August 5.

METROPOLITAN BOROUGH OF PADDINGTON PUBLIC